

# THE AMERICAN MUSEUM,

For SEPTEMBER, 1789.

*An essay on the causes of the variety of complexion and figure in the human species. To which are added strictures on lord Kaimes's discourse, on the original diversity of mankind. By the reverend Samuel Stanhope Smith, D. D. vice-president, and professor of moral philosophy, in the college of New Jersey; and M. A. P. S.—P. 129.*

THE whole of the Tartar race are of low stature. Their heads have a magnitude disproportioned to the rest of the body. Their shoulders are raised, and their necks are short. Their eyes are small, and appear, by the jutting of the eyebrows over them, to be sunk in the head. The nose is short, and rises but little from the face. The cheek is elevated, and spread out on the sides. The whole of the features are remarkably coarse and deformed. And all these peculiarities are aggravated, as you proceed towards the pole, in the Laponian, Borandian, and Samoiede races, which, as Buffon justly remarks, are Tartars, reduced to the last degree of degeneracy.—A race of men, resembling the Laplanders, we find in a similar climate in America. The frozen countries round Hudson's bay are, except Siberia, the coldest in the world. And here the inhabitants are between four and five feet in height. Their heads are large—their eyes are little and weak—and their hands, feet, and limbs, uncommonly small.

These effects naturally result from extreme cold. Cold contracts the nerves, at it does all solid bodies. The inhabitants grow under the constriction of continual frost, as under the forcible compression of some powerful machine. Men will, therefore, be found in the highest latitudes, forever small, and of low stature\*. The

NOTE.

\* A moderate degree of cold is necessary to give force and tone to the nerves, and to raise the human body to its largest size. But extreme

excessive rigours of these frozen regions, affect chiefly the extremities. The blood, circulating to them with a more languid and feeble motion, has not sufficient vigour to resist the impressions of the cold. These limbs, consequently, suffer a greater contraction and diminution than the rest of the body. But the blood, flowing with warmth and force to the breast and head, and perhaps with the more force, as its course to the extremities is obstructed, distends these parts to a disproportionate size. There is a regular gradation, in the effect of the climate, and in the figure of the people, from the Tartars to the tribes round Hudson's bay. The Tartars are taller and thicker than the Laplanders, or the Samoiedes, because their climate is less severe. The northern Americans are the most diminutive of all; their extremities are the smallest, and their breast and head of the most disproportioned magnitude, because, inhabiting a climate equally severe with the Samoiedes, they are reduced to a more savage state of society†.

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cold overstrains and contracts them. Therefore, these northern tribes are not only small, but weak and timid.

† The neighbourhood of the Russians, of the Chinese, and even of Tartars, who have adopted many improvements from the civilized nations that border upon them, gives the Laplanders and Siberians considerable advantages over the northern Americans, who are in the most abject state of savage life, and totally destitute of every art, either for convenience or protection. The principles, stated above, apply to all these nations, in proportion to the degree of cold, combined with the degree of savageness. The inhabitants of the northern civilized countries of Europe, are generally of lower stature than those in the middle regions. But civilization, and a milder climate, prevent them from degenerating equally with the northern Asiatics and Americans.

Aa

Extreme cold likewise tends to form the next peculiarities of these races, their high shoulders, and their short necks. Severe frost prompts men to raise their shoulders, as if to protect the neck, and to cherish the warmth of the blood that flows to the head; and the habits of an eternal winter will fix them in that position. The neck will appear shortened beyond its due proportion, not only because it suffers an equal contraction with the other parts of the body; but because the head and breast, being increased to a disproportioned size, will encroach upon its length; and the natural elevation of the shoulders will bury what remains, so deep as to give the head an appearance of resting upon them for its support. That these peculiarities are the effect of climate\*, the examples, produced by French missionaries in China, of most respectable characters, leave us no room to doubt, who assure us, that they have seen, even in the forty-eighth degree of northern latitude, the posterity of Chinese families who had become perfect Tartars in their figure and aspect; and that they were distinguished, in particular, by the same shortness of the neck, and by the same elevation of the shoulders†.

That coarse and deformed features are the necessary production of the climate, cannot have escaped the attention of the most inquisitive observer. Let us attend to the effects of extreme cold. It contracts the aperture of the eyes—it draws down the brows—it

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\* As climate is often known peculiarly to affect certain parts of the body, philosophy, if it were necessary, could find no more difficulty in accounting for the short necks of the Tartars, and other northern tribes, as a disease of the climate, than she finds in giving the same account for the thick necks so frequently found in the regions of the Alps. But, the observations before made, will probably convince the attentive reader, that there is no need to resort to such a solution of the phenomenon, when it seems so easily to be explained by the known operation of natural causes.

† See *Recueil 23 des lettres éditantes*.

raises the cheek, by the pressure of the under jaw against the upper; it diminishes the face in length, and spreads it out at the sides—and distorts the shape of every feature.

This, which is only a transient impression in our climate, soon effaced by the conveniencies of society, and by the changes of the seasons, becomes a heightened and permanent effect in those extreme regions, arising from the greater intensity, and the constant action of the cause. The naked and defenceless condition of the people, augments its violence—and beginning its operation from infancy, when the features are most tender and susceptible of impression, and continuing it, without remission, till they have attained their utmost growth, they become fixed at length in the point of greatest deformity, and form the character of the Hudson of Siberian countenance.

The principal peculiarities, that may require a farther illustration, are the smallness of the nose, and depression of the middle of the face—the prominence of the forehead—and the extreme weakness of the eyes.

The middle of the face is that part which is most exposed to the cold, and consequently suffers most from its power of contraction. It first meets the wind, and it is farthest removed from the seat of warmth in the head. But a circumstance of equal, or, perhaps, of greater importance, on this subject, is, that the inhabitants of frozen climates, naturally drawing their breath more through the nose, than through the mouth‡, thereby direct the greatest impulse of the air on that feature, and the parts adjacent. Such a continual stream of air augments the cold, and, by increasing the contraction of the parts, restrains the freedom of their growth||.

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‡ A frosty air, inhaled by the mouth, chills the body more than when it is received by the nostrils; probably, because a greater quantity enters at a time. Nature, therefore, prompts men to keep the mouth closed, during the prevalence of intense frost.

|| On the same principle, the mercury, in the thermometer, may be

Hence, likewise, will arise an easy solution of the next peculiarity, the prominence of the forehead. The superior warmth and force of life, in the brain, that fills the upper part of the head, will naturally increase its size, and make it overhang the contracted parts below.

Lastly, the eyes, in these rigorous climates, are singularly affected. By the projection of the eye-brows, they appear to be sunk into the head; the cold naturally diminishes their aperture; and the intensity of the frost, concurring with the glare of eternal snows, so overstrains these tender organs, that they are always weak, and the inhabitants are often liable to blindness, at an early age.

In the temperate zone, on the other hand, and in a point rather below than above the middle region of temperature, the agreeable warmth of the air, disposing the nerves to the most free and easy expansion, will open the features, and increase the orb of the eye\*. Here, a large full eye, being the tendency of nature, will grow to be esteemed a perfection. And, in the strain of Homer, *ἰσχυρὸν ὄμμα* would convey, to a Greek, an idea of divine beauty, that is hardly intelligible to an inhabitant of the north of Europe. All the principles of the human constitution, unfold-

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contracted and sunk into the bulb, by directing upon it a constant stream of air, from a pair of bellows, if the bulb be frequently touched, during the operation, with any fluid, that, by a speedy evaporation, tends to increase the cold.

\* It is perhaps worthy of remark, that, in the three continents, the temperate climates, and eternal cold, border so nearly upon one another, that we pass almost instantly from the former to the latter. And we find the Laplander, the Samoiede, the Mongou, and the tribes round Hudson's bay, in the neighbourhood of the Swede, the Russian, the Chinese, and the Canadian. Without attention to this remark, hasty reasoners will make the sudden change of features, in these nations, an objection against the preceding philosophy.

ing themselves freely in such a region, and nature acting without constraint, will be there seen most nearly in that perfection, which was the original design and idea of the Creator†.

II. Having endeavoured to ascertain the power of climate, in producing many varieties in the human species, I proceed to illustrate the influence of the state of society.

On this subject I observe,

1. In the first place, that the effect of climate is augmented by a savage state, and corrected by a state of civilization. And,

2. In the next place, that, by the state of society, many varieties in the human person are entirely formed.

In the first place, the effect of climate is augmented by a savage state of society, and corrected by a state of civilization.

A naked savage, seldom enjoying the protection of a miserable hut, and compelled to lodge on the bare ground, and under the open sky, imbibes the influence of the sun and atmosphere at every pore. He inhabits an uncultivated region, filled with stagnant waters, and covered with putrid vegetables, that fall down, and corrupt on the spot where they have grown. He pitches his wigwam on the side of a river, that he may enjoy the convenience of fishing, as well as of hunting. The vapour of rivers, the exhalations of marshes, and the noxious effluvia of decaying vegetables, fill the whole atmosphere, in an unimproved country, and tend to give a dark and bilious hue to the complexion‡. And the sun, acting im-

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† It may perhaps gratify my countrymen, to reflect, that the united states occupy those latitudes, that have ever been most favourable to the beauty of the human form. When time shall have accommodated the constitution to its new state, and cultivation shall have meliorated the climate, the beauties of Greece and Circassia may be renewed in America; as there are not a few already, who rival those of any other quarter of the globe.

‡ The forests, in uncultivated countries, absorb a great part of these putrid vapours, otherwise they would be contagious and mortal. But as na-

mediately on the skin in this state, will necessarily impress a deep colour.

This effect is augmented by the practice of painting, to which savages are often obliged to have recourse, in order to protect themselves from the impression of the humid earth, on which they lie, or of a noxious atmosphere, to which they are exposed without covering. Painting, taken up at first through necessity, is afterwards employed as an ornament; and a savage is seldom seen without having his skin covered with some composition, that spoils the fineness of its texture, and impairs the beauty and clearness of its natural colour. This is known to be the effect of the finest paints and washes, that are used for the same purpose, in polished society. Much more will it be the effect of those coarse and filthy unguents which are employed by savages. And as we see, that coloured marks, impressed by punctures in the skin, become indelible, it is reasonable to believe, that the particles of paints, insinuated into its texture by forcible and frequent rubbing, will tend, in like manner, to create a dark and permanent colour.

#### NOTE.

ture never makes her work perfect, but leaves the completion of her schemes to exercise the industry and wisdom of man, the growing vegetables do not absorb the whole effluvia of the decaying, and of the noxious marshes that overspread the face of such a region. Nothing but civilization and culture can perfectly purify the atmosphere. Uncultivated, as well as warm countries, therefore, naturally tend to a bilious habit, and a dark complexion. It may seem an objection against this observation, that in America we often find bilious disorders augmented in consequence of cutting down the timber, and extending the plantations. Thereason of which, probably, is, that the indolence or necessities of a new country, frequently lead men to clear the ground, without draining the marshes; or small plantations are surrounded by unimproved forests. Thus, the vegetables, that absorbed the noxious moisture, being removed, it is left to fall in greater abundance on man.

To this may be added, that the frequent fumigations, by which they are obliged to guard against the annoyance of innumerable insects, in undrained and uncultivated countries—and the smoke, with which their huts, unskilfully built, and without chimneys, are eternally filled, contribute to augment the natural darkness of the savage complexion. Smoke, we perceive, discolours the skin of those labourers and mechanics, who are habitually immersed in it—it stains every object, long exposed to its action, by entering the pores, and adhering strongly to the surface. It insinuates itself, in a similar manner, into the pores of the skin, and there tends to change the complexion, on the same principles, that it is changed by infected paints.

And, lastly, the hardships of their condition, that weaken and exhaust the principle of life—their scanty and meagre fare, which wants the succulence and nourishment that give freshness and vigour to the constitution—the uncertainty of their provision, which sometimes leaves them to languish with want, and sometimes enables them to overstrain themselves by a surfeit—and their entire inattention to personal and domestic cleanliness—all have a prodigious effect to darken the complexion, to relax and emaciate the constitution, and to render the features coarse and deformed. Of the influence of these causes, we have an example, in persons reduced to extreme poverty, who are usually as much distinguished by their thin habit, their uncouth features, and their swarthy and squalid aspect, as by the meanness of their garb. Nakedness, exposure, negligence of appearance, want of cleanliness, bad lodging, and meagre diet, so discolour and injure their form, as to enable us to frame some judgment of the degree, in which such causes will contribute to augment the influence of climate in savage life. Independently on climate, these causes will render it impossible, that a savage should ever be fair. And, the co-operation of both, will usually render men, in that state of society, extremely dark in their complexion. And, generally, they will be more coarse and hard in their features, and less robust in their persons, than men



who enjoy, with temperance, the advantages of civilized society\*.

As a savage state contributes to augment the influence of climate; or, at least, to exhibit its worst effects upon the human constitution; a state of civilization, on the other hand, tends to correct it, by furnishing innumerable means of guarding against its power. The conveniences of clothing

and of lodging—the plenty, and healthful quality of food—a country drained, cultivated, and freed from noxious effluvia—improved ideas of beauty—the constant study of elegance, and the infinite arts for attaining it, even in personal figure and appearance, give cultivated an immense advantage over savage society,

## NOTE.

\* One of the greatest difficulties, with which a writer on this subject has to combat, is the ignorance and superficial observation of the bulk of travellers, who travel without the true spirit of remark. The first objects that meet their view, in a new country, and among a new people, seize their fancy, and are recited with exaggeration; and they seldom have judgment and impartiality sufficient to examine and reason with justness and caution—and, from innumerable facts, which necessarily have many points of difference among themselves, to draw general conclusions. Such conclusions, when most justly drawn, they think they have refuted, when they discover a single example that seems not to coincide with them. In reasonings of this kind there are few persons who sufficiently consider, that, however accurately we may investigate causes and effects, our limited knowledge will always leave particular examples that will seem to be exceptions from any general principle. To apply these remarks. A few examples, perhaps, may occur, among savages, of regular and agreeable features, or of strong and muscular bodies; as in civilized society, we meet with some rare instances of astonishing beauty. If, by chance, a person of narrow observation, and incomprehensive mind, have seen two or three examples of this kind, he will be ready, on this slender foundation, to contradict the general remark I have made, concerning the coarse and uncouth features of savages, and their want of those fine and muscular proportions, if I may call them so, in the human body, that indicate strength, combined with swiftness. Yet, it is certain, that the general countenance of savage life, is much more uncouth

and coarse, more unmeaning and wild, as will afterwards be seen, when I come to point out the causes of it, than the countenance of polished society: and the person is more slender, and rather fitted for the chase, than robust, and capable of force and labour. An American Indian, in particular, is commonly swift; he is rarely very strong. And it has been remarked, in the many expeditions which the people of these states have undertaken against the savages, that, in close quarters, the strength of an Anglo-American is usually superior to that of an Indian of the same size. The muscles, likewise, on which the fine proportions of person so much depend, are generally smaller and more lax, than they are in improved society, that is not corrupted by luxury, or debilitated by sedentary occupations. Their limbs, therefore, though strait, are less beautifully turned. A deception often passes on the senses, in judging of the beauty of savages—and description is often more exaggerated than the senses are deceived. We do not expect beauty in savage life. When, therefore, we happen to perceive it, the contrast, with the usual condition of that state, imposes on the mind. And the exalted representations of savage beauty, which we sometimes read, are true only by comparison with savages. There is a difference, in this respect, between man, and many of the inferior animals, which were intended to run wild in the forest. They are always the most beautiful, when they enjoy their native liberty, and range. They decay and droop, when attempted to be domesticated, or confined. But man, being designed for society and civilization, attains, in that state, the greatest perfection of his form, as well of his whole nature.

in its attempts to counteract the influence of climate, and to beautify the human form.

2. I come now to observe, what is of much more importance on this part of the subject, that all the features of the human countenance are modified, and its entire expression radically formed, by the state of society.

Every object, that impresses the senses, and every emotion, that rises in the mind, affects the features of the face, the index of our feelings, and contributes to form the infinitely various countenance of man. Paucity of ideas creates a vacant and unmeaning aspect. Agreeable and cultivated scenes compose the features, and render them regular and gay. Wild, and deformed, and solitary forests, tend to impress on the countenance, an image of their own rudeness. Great varieties are created by diet and modes of living. The delicacies of refined life give a soft and elegant form to the features. Hard fare, and constant exposure to the injuries of the weather, render them coarse and uncouth. The infinite attentions of polished society, give variety and expression to the face. The want of intersting emotions, leaving its muscles lax and unexerted, they are suffered to distend themselves to a larger and grosser size, and acquire a soft unvarying swell, that is not distinctly marked by any idea. A general standard of beauty has its effect in forming the human countenance and figure. Every passion, and mode of thinking, has its peculiar expression—And all the preceding characters have again many variations, according to their degrees of strength, according to their combinations with other principles, and according to the peculiarities of constitution or of climate, that form the ground, on which the different impressions are received. As the degrees of civilization—as the ideas, passions, and objects of society in different countries, and under different forms of government, are infinitely various, they open a boundless field for variety in the human countenance. It is impossible to enumerate them. They are not the same in any two ages of the world. It would be unnecessary to enumerate

them, as my object is not become a physiognomist, but to evince the possibility of so many differences existing in one species; and to suggest a proper mode of reasoning, on new varieties as they may occur to our observation.

For this purpose, I shall, in the first place, endeavour, by several facts and illustrations to evince, that the state of society has a great effect in varying the figure and complexion of mankind.

I shall then shew, in what manner, some of the most distinguishing features of the savage, and particularly of the American savage, with whom we are best acquainted, naturally result from the rude condition in which they exist. (*To be continued.*)

*Reply to an essay, entitled, "An enquiry into the utility of the Greek and Latin languages."—P. 111.*

OUR author, in the next section, presents us with a more serious charge against the Greek and Latin classics. He roundly affirms, that they, at least some of them, "are unfavourable to morals and religion." That there are obscene passages in Latin writers, will not be denied; and it is to be regretted, that our author's reading appears to have been confined to sentiments of this description. But he should remember, that particular instances do not justify general conclusions. In fact, the improper parts of the classics are so very few, that nothing but absolute poverty of argument, can afford the least palliation for so shameless a calumny. In what respect are the works of Xenophon, Demosthenes, Homer, Longinus, C. Nepos, Cæsar, Sallust, Cicero, Virgil, Livy, Tacitus, Quintilian, &c. unfavourable to morality? and as to religion, that man must be but an ignorant advocate of it, who does not know that many of its strongest external proofs, are derived from the classics themselves. What a shallow pretence is it to say, that from these proceed "an early acquaintance with vice, and a diminished respect for the perfections of the true God." Before such an insinuation can help the gentleman out of his difficulties, it will be incumbent on him to prove, that clas-

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fical scholars are more vicious than others in similar circumstances. The clergy are in general acquainted with the classics, and it would be necessary for our hero to summon all his courage, in pronouncing them abandoned profligates. Yet, this is the precise conclusion, which we must draw from his premises. In what instance did the Christian God suffer by a comparison with the Pagan divinities; or, in what classical scholar has our author's penetration discovered a propensity to idolatry? But we are told, that the classics, which are free from the imputation of infecting morality, "contain little else but the histories of murders, perpetrated by kings, and related in such a manner as to excite pleasure and admiration." The gentleman's memory is defective—let him look over the authors mentioned above, and see if there are not several, whose works contain no more of the histories of murders of any kind, than his own essay. Is he yet to be informed, that to the history of antiquity, christianity is indebted for some of her most noble defences? If so, Newton's dissertation on the prophecies will set him right in that particular.

But what history will he find, that is not a continued proof of human depravity? Certainly, modern as well as ancient relations have but one object, the recording of facts for the advantage of future ages. I leave it to every impartial mind to determine, how consistent that man is with himself, who, in one breath, declaims against history, and recites a long string of evils which proceed from the study of it, and, in the next, recommends it as a part of liberal education. Is it possible, that a person can seriously condemn the classics, as having an immoral tendency, and at the same time pronounce a panegyric on the writings of dr. Swift? One would be tempted to think, that the author's real motive for decrying the classics, was not so much a concern for the interests of morality, as an implacable spite at Grecian and Roman literature. So that viewing the matter in any possible light, this part of his argument appears to be nothing more than the miserable subterfuge of baffled sophistry. Again, "the study of the Latin and Greek languages

is improper in the present state of society and government in the united states. While Greek and Latin are the only avenues to science, education will always be confined to a few people." But why confined to a few? Has our author shewn a single reason to justify his assertion? Is the expense too great? and will the wealthy alone enjoy the privilege of instruction? Look at our colleges! Are not the most of those who attend them, persons in the middle sphere of life? Or do the rich prove the best scholars? This experience denies. At the lowest computation, there are upwards of five hundred students in the colleges of Newhaven, Cambridge, New York, Princeton, Philadelphia, and Carlisle. This does not seem to favour the idea, that knowledge is accessible to few.

Our author proposes to make some succeeding positions the subjects of future consideration; I shall therefore pass them over, and offer a few cursory observations on his fancied refutation of the arguments advanced in support of the propriety of studying Latin and Greek. These observations shall be very brief, as a laboured confutation of dogmatic, unsupported assertions, would be an unnecessary waste of time, and an unpardonable trespass upon patience.

The first argument, upon which the gentleman falls his talons, is, "that a knowledge of the Latin or Greek grammar has been said to be necessary for our becoming acquainted with English grammar." If, by this is meant, that the English grammar should be regulated by the Latin or Greek, he is perfectly right in rejecting the opinion; though he need not claim the merit of exploding this error; it never was advanced but by some Utopian projectors, and the sober advocates of classical learning, never thought their cause so desperate as to require such puny aid. However, he might have assigned some better reason for his own judgment, than that "he has known many bachelors and masters of arts who were incorrect English scholars:" unless he can shew that corrupt pronunciation, or false English grammar, is the result of classical education, it is needless to point out the incorrectness of masters of arts—"The

Greek," he proceeds "is supposed to be the most perfect language both in its construction and harmony, that has ever been spoken by mortals; now this language was not learned through the medium of any other"—the pre-eminence of the Greeks "arose entirely from their being too wise to waste the important years of education in learning to call substances by two or three different names, instead of studying their qualities and uses." Do not laugh, gentle reader, when you find this same author, who now writes with great zeal against the absurd practice of "learning to call substances by two or three different names," gravely advising the study of French and German. Will the name of a thing in either of these languages, inspire a better knowledge of its qualities and uses, than the name of it in Latin or Greek? but observe the logic of the first part of this paragraph; it is to this effect:

The Greek is supposed to be the most perfect language that has ever been spoken by mortals.

But there is wide scope for improvement in the English tongue.

*Ergo*, we should never open a Greek book.

Similar to this is the gentleman's reasoning, when he attempts to prove, that we should not study the Greek and Latin, to become acquainted with the taste and eloquence of authors, who wrote in these languages.

We are told, that "Shakespeare owes his fame, as a sublime and original poet, to his having never read a Latin or Greek author;" and that "to this passion for ancient writings, we must ascribe the great want of originality, that marks too many of the poems of modern times—Why the reading of English, French, or German books, should be more favourable to originality, than the reading of those, which are written in Greek or Latin, it lies upon our author to explain; perhaps he will do it in his future essays.

The gentleman asserts, that "the study of the Greek and Latin languages has been one of the greatest obstructions that has ever been thrown in the way of the propagation of useful knowledge." How so? Why, "by rendering our language unintelligible to the greatest part of the

people." Admitting this to be true, will the evil be remedied by omitting the study of these languages? or will all the unintelligible words, which have been imported from these languages into our own, be entirely done away with the languages themselves? Would it greatly decorate an Englishman's or an American's style, to fust a swarm of French or German words into his composition? Yet this must be the case, if these languages are generally studied.

The gentleman is deeply concerned; that, on this account, the poor have "not the gospel preached to them:" but, if he will take the trouble to look into the world, he will find the far greatest proportion of pious people, belonging to that class.

When the utility of Greek and Latin is urged "as necessary to the learned professions of law, physic, and divinity," the gentleman replies, "the most useful books in each of these professions, are translated into English:" but he does not consider that living languages are in a state of perpetual fluctuation—He says that "custom will always govern the use of words." This is a most powerful argument for the study of Greek and Latin; because custom often warps words from their original meaning, and, at different periods, assigns different significations to the same word. If then the Latin and Greek are translated, and the originals thrown aside, the intention of an author may, in several important points, be wholly lost, unless the gentleman can give us security, that the English words, which are used to express an author's sense, will ever convey the precise ideas which were affixed to them, at the time when his book was translated.

He goes on, "*I see* no use at present for a knowledge of the Latin and Greek languages, for a lawyer, a physician, or a divine, in the united states, except it be to preserve the remembrance of a few technical terms, which may be retained without it." In this instance, it seems, our author's logic depends upon the acuteness of his optics. What fine reasoning is it to say, "*I see* no use for such a branch of study," and therefore it must be superfluous and pernicious. Charity herself cannot suppose a person to be

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over-flocked with modesty, when he thinks his bare opinion sufficient to overfet the judgment of the learned, who have flourished through a series of ages, and whose names will adorn the annals of literature—Nor can our thoughts of his humility be more favourable, when, with an imperious, dictatorial air, he condemns, as guilty of folly and absurdity, those venerable personages who preside over the interests of learning in the united states. It is a rule in good composition, to give the reader's mind some scope for exertion, in discovering implied inferences, and the connexion of an author's thoughts. Had the gentleman remembered this direction, he would probably have spared himself the trouble of making part of this last remark, and me the trouble of pointing out its inconsistency. He says, "I do not see the use," &c. From the tenor of his whole essay, it appears that he is ignorant of his subject in more respects: than one, and this, I presume, is an observation not out of the reach of common capacities.

To corroborate his previous assertions, he informs us, that "two of the most eminent and successful lawyers in the united states, are strangers to the Latin language." Without any apprehensions of injuring the cause of Grecian or Roman literature, I will help him to a still better argument, viz. that a certain gentleman, of publishing propensity, has learned both Latin and Greek, and is not a whit the wiser.

Respecting the disputes among critics, about "the meaning of words," &c. in the New Testament, we may hence draw an argument for the propriety of studying the Greek. If we do not, it will be impossible to form a settled judgment concerning disputed passages; and of course we must implicitly rely on the opinion of others, or have no opinion at all—a situation to which an independent mind would not wish to be reduced. Here our author starts a mighty difficulty—"it follows, that a knowledge of the languages and dialects, in which the different parts of it (the New Testament) were originally composed, is equally necessary." It is not easy to tell what he means by the different

languages\* of the New Testament; and as for the dialects, his consequence will be admitted, without scruple; and to what does it amount? Evidently to nothing more than this, that divines ought to be good classical scholars. His conclusion, however, that this knowledge of the dialects, &c. is indispensably necessary to the common people, can no more be allowed, than that the common people are bound to study medicine, because they are all interested in its success.

After some farther remarks, our author directs our attention to two distinguished personages in America; and when he has mentioned some of their services, for which the benedictions of the present and future generations will be showered upon them—he tells us, that they "were strangers to the formalities of a Latin and Greek education."

Gratitude to those illustrious patriots, to whom, I suppose, he alludes, and veneration for their exalted virtues, are written in indelible characters upon the heart of every friend to mankind. But our author's inference against the utility of the Greek and Latin, can be of no service, unless he will shew, that their laurels are the fruit of their never having studied these languages. Equally just would be the supposition, that the study of physic is altogether useless, because the Indians are capable of performing cures, which may be far out of the reach of a regular physician's skill. But this would be, to many, a very unpalatable doctrine. To obviate any prejudice which might arise, our author proposes a plan for preserving the knowledge of Greek and Latin, without making it a part of liberal education. He wishes to have certain persons appointed for the express purpose of translating and explaining Greek and Latin books, &c. With what an elevated idea, does this project present us? How noble the

## NOTE.

\* Some, indeed, suppose, that the gospel of Matthew was originally written in Hebrew; but as this is a contested point, it can never justify an expression, so general, as "all the languages," &c.

B b

thought, that the literati of America, (to use a common phraseology) must pin their faith upon the sleeves of a few hired pedagogues! However congenial such a proposal may be to our author's mind, no person of dignified sentiment will subscribe the humiliating terms.

Whilst the gentleman is mounted upon his hobby-horsical Pacolet, he knows not where to stop. After banishing Greek and Latin, the next step of improvement, is to calhien all the words which are of Greek or Latin etymology—and when he has done this, our language will be wonderfully simplified, and our dictionaries reduced to the size of common grammars—Is not this excellent reasoning? What use have we for such words as festivity, hilarity, &c. It is a sufficient answer, to say, the very same that we have for any other words in the language.

It is somewhat odd, that our author has deigned to employ a word of Greek or Latin derivation; but I am too hasty; had he acted upon his own principles, the world would never have seen his production. There is no danger of transgressing the bounds of truth, in saying, that, with all his ingenuity, he would not be able to write half a page, which did not contain some word of Latin or Greek derivation.

In pointing out the advantages, that will naturally result from the disuse of the Latin and Greek—our author has done nothing more than assert, which he calls demonstration: and, in this manner, it is easy to prove, that he was in a dream, or, in a delirium, when he wrote his treatise.

To conclude—The piece, upon which I have so freely animadverted, appears to be the effusion of momentary frenzy; and the best apology which can be made for the author, is, that he has written without reflection, or sacrificed his judgment to caprice.

GLOTTOPHILUS.

New York, July 13, 1789.

*An essay on free trade and finance particularly shewing, what supplies of public revenue may be drawn from merchandize, without injur-*

*ing our trade, or burdening our people.—P. 136.*

**B**UT perhaps the advantage of this kind of taxation will appear in a more striking light, by considering its practical and general effects, on a nation which adopts it: in which view of the matter, I think it will be very manifest,

I. That any man of business, whether he be merchant, farmer or tradesman, may live easier and better, i. e. be happier through the year, and richer at the end of it, in a country where this tax is paid, than he could live in the same country, if the tax was not paid; for as the tax is laid on useless consumptions, it would, of course, diminish those consumptions, and, of course, save the first cost of the part diminished, and all the additional expense, which the use of that part would require. If a man lives in a country, abounding in luxury, he must go in some degree into it, or appear singular and mean; and that part, which he would be in a manner compelled to adopt would probably cost him more than his tax; but 'tis here to be considered, that the first cost of an article of luxury, is not nearly all the cost of it. One article often makes another necessary, and that a third, and so on almost *ad infinitum*. If you buy a silk cloak, there must also be trimmings: and that will not do, without a hat or bonnet: and these require a suitable accommodation in every other part of the dress, in order to keep up any sort of decency and uniformity of appearance: and there also must be spent a great deal of time to put these fine things on, and to wear them, to shew them, to receive and pay visits in them, &c. And when this kind of luxury prevails in a country, beyond the degree which its wealth can bear, the consequence is pride, poverty, debt, duns, lawsuits, &c. &c. The farmer finds the proceeds of the year vanished into trifles; the merchant and tradesman may sell their goods indeed, but can't get payment for them. Every family finds its expense greatly increased, and the time of the family much consumed in attending to that very expense. Many families soon become embarrassed, and put to very mortifying shifts, to keep up that appearance, which such a corrupt taste

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almost compels them to support. But were these families, with the same income, to live in a country of more economy, and less luxury, they would easily pay the taxes on the luxuries they did use—keep on a good footing with their neighbours—appear with as much distinction—live happy and unembarrassed through the year, and have money in their pockets at the end of it. In such a country, payments would be punctual, and industry steady; and, of course, all business, both of merchandize, husbandry, and mechanic arts, might be carried on with ease and success. These are no high colourings, but an appeal to plain facts, and to the sense of every prudent man on these facts; and I here with confidence ask every wise man, if he would not choose to live in a country, where articles of hurtful luxury and useless consumption, were, by taxes or any other cause, raised so high in their price, as to prevent the excessive use of them, rather than in a country, where such articles were of easy acquirement, and the use of them so excessive among the inhabitants, as to consume their wealth, destroy their industry, and corrupt the morals and health of the people?

II. I think, it is very plain, that articles of hurtful and useless consumption are making such rapid progress among us, and growing into such excessive use, as to throw the economy, industry, simplicity, and even health of our people into danger, and of consequence, raising the price of such articles so high, as will be necessary to produce a proper check to the excessive use of them, will require a tax so great, as, when added to a small and very moderate impost on articles of general and necessary consumption, will bring money enough into the public treasury, for all the purposes of the public service. We will suppose, then, that all this is done, and when this is done, we will stop a moment, and look round us, and view the advantages resulting from this measure, over and above the capital one of checking and restraining that excessive luxury, which threatens, if not an absolute destruction, yet at least a tarnishment of every principle, out of which our prof-

perity, wealth, and happiness must necessarily and forever flow. I say, we'll stop a minute and view the advantageous effects of this measure. The first grand effect, which presents itself to my view, is, that our army would be paid,\* that our brethren, our fellow citizens, who, by their valour, their patience, their perseverance in the field, have secured to us our extensive country, and all its blessings, would be enabled to return to their friends and connexions, not only crowned with the laurels of the field, but rewarded by the justice and gratitude of their country, and be thereby enabled to support their dignity of character, or at least be put on a footing with their fellow citizens (whom they have saved) in the procurement of the means of living.

The next advantage of this measure, which occurs to me, is, the easement and exoneration of the labourers of the community, the husbandman and tradesman, out of whose labour all our wealth and supplies are derived. By them we are fed, by them we are clothed: by the various modifications of their labour, our staples are produced, our commerce receives its principle, and our utmost abundance is supplied: we are therefore bound, by every principle of justice, gratitude, and good policy, to give them encouragement and uninterrupted security in their peaceful occupations, and not, by an unnatural and ill-fated arrangement of our finances, compel them to leave their labours, which are the grand object of their attention and our supplies, to go in quest of money to satisfy a collector of taxes.

But justice and gratitude operate only on minds, which these virtues can reach. There may be some few among us, of no little weight, who are content, if they can obtain the services, to let the servant shift for himself, and who, when they are sure of the benefit, remember no longer the benefactor; and as, in this great argument of universal concern, I wish

## NOTE.

\* This was written in March, 1783, about the time, when the continental army was dismissed, but not paid.

to find the way to every man's sense, and address myself, not only to those who have virtue, but even to those who have none, I will therefore mention another advantage of this measure, which I think, will (virtue or no virtue) reach the feelings of every man, who retains the least sense of interest, viz. that in this way all our public creditors would be paid and satisfied, either by a total discharge of their principal, or an undoubted well-funded security of it, with a sure and punctual payment of their interest, which would be the best of the two; because a total discharge of the principal at once, if sufficient money could be obtained, would make such a sudden, so vast an addition to our circulating cash, as would depreciate it, and reduce the value of the debt paid, much below its worth at the time of contract, and introduce a fluctuation of our markets, and other fatal evils of a depreciated currency, which have been known by experience, and severely enough felt, to make them dreaded; it would therefore be much better for the creditor to receive a certain well-funded security of his debt, than full payment: for in that case, if he needed the cash for his debt, he might sell his security, at little or no discount, which is the constant practice of the public creditors in England, where every kind of public security has its rate of exchange, settled every day, and may be negotiated in a very short time. Supposing this should be the case, stop and see what an amazing effect this would have on every kind of business in the country. The public bankruptcies have been so amazingly great, that vast numbers of our people have been reduced by them to the condition of men, who have sold their effects to broken merchants, that cannot pay them; their business is lessened, or, perhaps, reduced to nothing, for want of their stock, so detained from them. Supposing, then, that their stock was restored to them all, they would instantly all push into business, and the proceeds of their business would flow through the country, in every direction of industry, and every species of supply: in fine, the whole country would be alive; and as it is obvious to every one, that it is much better

living in a country of brisk business, than one of stagnated business, every individual would reap benefits from this general animation of industry, beyond account, more than enough to compensate the tax which he has paid to produce it. All these advantages, hitherto enumerated, would put the labour and industry of our people of all occupations on such a footing of profit, and security, as would soon give a new face to the country, and open such extensive prospects of plenty, peace, and establishment, throw into action so many sources of wealth, give such stability to public credit, and make the burdens of government so easy and almost imperceptible to the people, as would make our country, not only a most advantageous place to live in, but even make it abound with the richest enjoyments and heartfelt delights. These are objects of great magnitude and desirableness; they animate and dilate the heart of every American. What can do the heart more good, than to see our country a scene of justice, plenty, and happiness? are those rich blessings within our reach? can we believe they are so absolutely within our power, that they require no more than very practicable efforts to bring us into the full possession of them? These blessings are doubtless attainable, if we will go to the price of them; and that you may judge whether they are worth the purchase, whether they are too dear or not; I will give you the price current of them all, the price, which, if honestly paid, will certainly purchase them.

In order to have them, then, we must pay about a dollar and half a gallon, for rum, brandy, and other distilled spirits; a dollar a gallon, above the ordinary price, for wines; a dollar and a half for bohea tea, and about that sum, above the ordinary price, for hyson tea; a double price on silks of all sorts, laces of all sorts, and thin linens and cottons of all sorts, such as muslins, lawns, and cambricks, and also on jewelry of all sorts, &c.; about a dollar and third a yard, above the ordinary price, for superfine cloths of all sorts, &c. &c. a third of a dollar a bushel, our salt, (for I don't mean to lay quite all the tax on the rich, and wholly excuse the poor,)

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about a dollar a hundred, for sugar, one tenth of a dollar a pound, on coffee, the same on cocoa, above the ordinary price, &c. &c. with an addition of five per cent, on all articles of importation not enumerated, except cotton, dying woods, and other raw materials for our own manufactures; for, whilst importations are discouraged, our own manufactures will naturally be increased, and ought to be encouraged, or at least be disburdened. On this state of the matter, I beg leave to observe, that the war itself, for seven years past, has laid a tax on us, nearly equal to the highest of these, and, on some articles of necessary consumption, from two hundred to a thousand per cent. higher, such as salt, pepper, allspice, allum, powder, lead, &c. &c. and yet I never heard any body complain of being ruined by the war, because rum was twelve shillings per gallon, tea twelve shillings per pound, mantuas three dollars a yard, pepper ten shillings a pound, or superfine cloths eight dollars a yard, &c. Nor does it appear to me, that the country has paid a shilling more for rum, silks, superfine cloths, &c. for the last seven years, than was paid for the same articles the seven preceding years, i. e. the whole tax was paid by lessening the consumption of these articles. Nor do I think, that the health, habits, or happiness of the country, have suffered in the least, on the whole, from its being obliged to use less of these articles than was before usual; but be this as it may, 'tis very certain, that the country has suffered but little from the increased price of these articles, which I propose to tax, except at some particular times, when those prices were raised much higher than the point to which I propose to raise them, i. e. at particular times, rum has been as high as three dollars a gallon, tea three dollars a pound, sugars, and coffee, three shillings and six-pence a pound, mantuas four dollars a yard, &c: but 'tis observable, that the principal increased prices, which have really hurt and distressed the country, during the war, have been of other articles, which I propose to tax very lightly, or not at all; such as salt, which has at times been six dollars a bushel, and perhaps three

or four dollars on an average, coarse cloths and coarse linens, osnabrigs, cutlery, and crockery-ware, &c. which have often risen to five or six prices, and stood for years together at three or four: and yet the burden of these excessive prices, of even necessary articles of unavoidable consumption, has not been so great, if you except the article of salt, as to be so much as mentioned very often among the ruinous effects and distresses of the war. (To be continued.)

*Character novi generis plantæ, quam nuper inter fœdus cum indigenis componendum, in Silva Americana detexit Samuel Latham Mitchell, M. D.*

## RENSSALÆRIA.

*Calyx.*

**P**ERIANTHIUM foliolis octo constans, quorum tria externa infera; reliqua corollæ proxima; colorata, concava; rotundo-acuminata, persistentia.

*Corolla.* Monopetala, ventricosa, bilabiata, ringens. Tubus brevissimus. Limbus dehiscens. Labium superius bifidum; inferius tripartitum, utrinque barbatur, in medio elevatum.

*Nectarium.* In superiore tubi parte, supra pistillum, situm, circa originem pilosum, subulatum.

*Stamina.* Filamenta quatuor, incurva, pilosa, corollæ tubo inserta, approximata; quorum duo superiora breviora. Antheræ triquatræ, gibbosæ, externæ glabræ, intus tomentosæ, connatæ, magnæ.

*Pistillum.* Germen conicum, superum. Stylus cylindraceus, filiformis, apice incurvatus. Stigma simplex, obtusum.

*Pericarpium.* Capsula crassa, gibba, teretiuscula, bilocularis, bivalvis.

*Semina.* Plurima, parva.

Hoc genus ad Didynam. Angiosperm. cl. Linnæi pertinet.

Fort Schuyler, Sept. 1788.

*Azakia: a Canadian story.*

**T**HE ancient inhabitants of Canada were, strictly speaking, all savages. Nothing proves this better than the destiny of some Frenchmen, who first arrived in this part of the world. They were eaten by the peo-

ple whom they pretended to humanize and polish.

New attempts were more successful. The savages were driven into the inner parts of the continent; treaties of peace, always ill observed, were concluded with them; but the French found means to create in them wants, which made their yoke necessary to them. Their brandy and tobacco easily effected what their arms might have operated with greater difficulty. Confidence soon became mutual, and the forests of Canada were frequented with as much freedom by the new inmates, as by the natives.

These forests were often also resorted to by the married and unmarried savage women, whom the meeting of a Frenchman put into no terrors. All these women, for the most part, are handsome, and certainly their beauty owes nothing to the embellishments of art: much less has it any influence on their conduct. Their character is naturally mild, and flexible, their humour gay; they laugh in the most agreeable and winning manner. They have a strong propensity to love; a propensity, which a maiden, in this country, may yield to, and always indulges without scruple, and without fearing the least reproach. It is not so with a married woman: she must be entirely devoted to him she has married; and, what is not less worthy of notice, she punctually fulfils this duty.

An heroine of this class, and who was born among the Hurons, one day happened to wander in a forest that lay contiguous to the grounds they inhabited. She was surprised by a French soldier, who did not trouble himself to enquire, whether she was a wife or a maiden. Besides, he found himself little disposed to respect the right of a Huron husband. The shrieks of the young savage, in defending herself, brought to the same place, the baron of St. Castins, an officer in the troops of Canada. He had no difficulty to oblige the soldier to depart: but the person, he had so opportunely saved, had so many engaging charms, that the soldier appeared excusable to him. Being himself tempted to sue for the reward of the good office he had just rendered, he pleaded his cause in a more gentle and insinuating

manner, than the soldier, but did not succeed better. "The friend that is before my eyes, hinders my seeing thee," said the Huron woman to him. This is the savage phrase, for expressing that a woman has a husband, and that she cannot be wanting in fidelity to him. This phrase is not a vain form; it contains a peremptory refusal; it is common to all the women of those barbarous nations; and its force, the neighbourhood of the Europeans, and their example, were never able to diminish.

St. Castins, to whom the language and customs of the Hurons were familiar, saw immediately that he must drop all pretensions; and this persuasion recalled all his generosity. He therefore made no other advances, than to accompany the beautiful savage, whom chance alone had directed into the wood, and who was afraid of new rencontres. As they passed on, he received all possible marks of gratitude, except that which he at first requested.

Some time after, St. Castins being insulted by a brother officer, killed him in a duel. This officer was nephew to the general governor of the colony, and the governor was as absolute as vindictive. St. Castins had no other resource than to betake himself to flight. It was presumed, that he had retired among the English of New-York; which, indeed, was very probable; but, persuaded that he should find an equally safe asylum among the Hurons, he gave them the preference.

The desire of again seeing Azakia, which was the name of the savage he had rescued, contributed greatly to determine him in that choice. She knew immediately her deliverer. Nothing could equal her joy, at this unexpected visit, and she declared it as ingenuously, as before, she had resisted his attacks. The savage, whose wife she was, and whose name was Ouabi, gave St. Castins the same reception, who acquainted him of the motive of his flight. "May the Great Spirit be praised, for having brought thee among us," replied the Huron! "This body," added he, laying his hand on his bosom, "will serve thee as a shelter for defence; and this head-breaking hatchet will put to flight, or strike

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dead thy enemies. My hut shall be thine: thou shalt always see the bright star of the day appear and leave us, without any thing being wanting to thee, or any thing being able to hurt thee."

St. Castins declared to him, that he absolutely desired to live as they did, that is, to bear a part in their labours and their wars; to abide by their customs; in short, to become a Huron; a resolution, which redoubled Ouabi's joy. This savage held the first rank among his people—he was their grand chief—a dignity which his courage and services had merited for him. There were other chiefs under him, and he offered one of the places to St. Castins, who accepted of the rank only of a private warrior.

The Hurons were then at war with the Iroquois, and were intent on forming some enterprise against them. St. Castins would fain make one in the expedition, and fought as a true Huron: but was dangerously wounded. He was brought back with great difficulty to Ouabi's house, on a kind of litter. At this sight, Azakia appeared overwhelmed with grief; but, instead of vain lamentation, she exerted all possible care and assiduity to be of service to him. Though she had several slaves at command, she depended only on herself, for what might contribute to the relief of her guest. Her activity equalled her solitude. One would have said, that it was a lover watching over the precious life of her beloved. Few could help drawing the most flattering consequences, on such an occasion; and this was what St. Castins did. His desires and his hopes revived with his strength. One only point disconcerted his views, which was the services and attentions of Ouabi. Could he deceive him, without adding ingratitude to perfidy? "But," said St. Castins, arguing the case with himself, "the good-natured Ouabi is but a savage, and he cannot be so scrupulous herein, as many of our good folks in Europe." This reason, which was no reason in fact, appeared very solid to the amorous Frenchman. He renewed his tender advances, and was surprised to meet with new refusals. "Stop! Celario," which was the savage name that was given to St. Castins; "stop," said

Azakia to him; the shivers of the rod, which I have broken with Ouabi, have not yet been reduced to ashes. A part remains still in his power, and another in mine. As long as they last, I am his, and cannot be thine." These words, spoken in a peremptory manner, quite disconcerted St. Castins. He dared not insist upon the matter farther, and fell into a melancholy reverie. Azakia was deeply affected by it. "What can I do?" said she to him; "I cannot become thy companion, but by ceasing to be the companion of Ouabi; and I cannot quit Ouabi, without causing in him the same sorrow thou feelst in thyself. Answer me, has he deserved it?"—"No!" cried out Celario, "no! he deserves to be entirely preferred before me; but I must abandon his dwelling. It is only by ceasing to see Azakia, that I can cease to be ungrateful to Ouabi."

These words chilled with paleness the young savage's face: her tears flowed almost at the same instant, and she did not endeavour to conceal them. "Ah! ungrateful Celario!" cried she, with sobs, and pressing his hands between her own; "is it true, ungrateful Celario! that thou hast a mind to quit those, to whom thou art more dear than the light of the bright star of the day? What have we done to thee, that thou shouldst leave us? Is any thing wanting to thee? Dost thou not see me continually by thy side, as the slave that wants but the beck to obey? Why wilt thou have Azakia die of grief? Thou canst not leave her, without taking with thee her soul: it is thine, as her body is Ouabi's." The entrance of Ouabi stopped the answer of St. Castins. Azakia still continued weeping, without restraining herself, without even hiding for a moment the cause. "Friend," said she to the Huron, "thou still seest Celario; thou seest him, and thou mayest speak to and hear him; but he will soon disappear from before thine eyes: he is going to seek after other friends." "Other friends," cried the savage, almost as much alarmed as Azakia herself; and what, dear Celario, what induces thee to tear thyself from our arms? Hast thou received here any injury, any damage? Answer me; thou knowest my authority in these

parts. I swear to thee, by the great Spirit, that thou shalt be satisfied, and revenged."

This question greatly embarrassed St. Castins. He had no reasonable subject for complaint; and the true motive of his resolution ought to be absolutely unknown to Ouabi. There was a necessity of pretending some trivial and common reasons, which the good Ouabi found very ridiculous. "Let us speak of other things," added he; "to-morrow I set out on an expedition against the Iroquois; and this evening I give to our warriors the customary feast. Partake of this amusement, dear Celario." "I am equally willing to partake of your dangers and labours," said St. Castins, interrupting him; "I shall accompany you in this new expedition." "Thy strength would betray thy courage," replied the Huron chief; "it is no great matter to know how to face death; thou shouldst be able to deal death among the enemy; thou shouldst be able to pursue the enemy, if they are put to flight; and thou shouldst be able to fly thyself, if they be an over match. Such were at all times our warlike maxims. Think now, therefore, only of getting thyself cured, and taking care of this habitation during my absence, which I confide to thee." It was in vain for St. Castins to make a reply. The warriors soon assemble, and the feast begins. It is scarce over, when the troops march off, and St. Castins remains more than ever exposed to the charms of Azakia.

It is certain, that this young savage loved her guest, and loved him with a love purely ideal, without doubting that it was such a love. She even took a resolution, which others, who loved as she did, certainly would have not have taken, which was to procure for St. Castins the opportunity of obtaining from another what herself had obstinately refused him. The charms of the rival she gave herself, were well calculated to attract his regards. She was but eighteen years old, was very handsome, and which was not less necessary, was still a virgin. It has been before observed, that a maiden enjoys full liberty among the North American Indians. St. Castins, encouraged by Azakia, had di-

vers conferences with Zisma, which was the name of this young Huron lady, and in a few days he could read in her eyes that she would be less severe than his friend. It is not known whether he profited of the discovery: at least it did not make him forget Azakia, who, on her side, seemed to have no inclination to be forgotten. St. Castins felt himself, notwithstanding all his interior struggles, more attracted towards her. An accident, which every where else might have contributed to unite them, had like to have separated them forever.

They were informed, by some runaways, who had made more speed than others, that Ouabi had fallen into an ambushade of the Iroquois; that he had lost some of his party; and that he himself was left on the field of battle. This news filled St. Castins with true sorrow. His generosity made him set aside all views of interest. He forgot, that, in losing a friend, he found himself rid of a rival. Besides, the death of this rival might also occasion that of Azakia. Her life, from that moment, depended on the caprice of a dream. Such was the force of a superstitious custom, sacred from time immemorial among these people. If in the space of forty days, a widow, who has lost her husband, sees and speaks to him twice successively in a dream, she infers from thence, that he wants her in the region of souls, and nothing can dispense with her putting herself to death.

Azakia had resolved to obey this custom, if the double dream took place. She sincerely regretted Ouabi; and though St. Castins gave her cause for other sorrows, if she was to die, the prevalence of the custom had the ascendant over inclination. It is not easy to express the inquietudes, the terrors that tormented the lover of this beautiful and credulous Huron. Every night he fancied her a prey to those sinister visions; and, every morning, he accollod her with fear and trembling. At length, he found her preparing a mortal draught: it was the juice of a root of the citron-tree; a poison, which, in that country, never fails of success. "Thou feell, dear Celario," said Azakia to him, "thou feell the preparation for the

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long journey which Ouabi has ordered me to make." "Oh heavens!" said St. Castins, interrupting her, "how can you believe in a foolish dream, a frivolous and deceitful delusion?" "stop, Celario," replied the Huron; "thou deceivest thyself. Ouabi appeared to me last night; he took me by the hand, and ordered me to follow him. The weight of my body opposed this order. Ouabi withdrew with a mournful countenance. I called him back, and the only answer he gave me, was to stretch out his arms to me, and he afterwards disappeared. He will return without doubt, dear Celario; I must obey him, and, after bewailing thy hard lot, I will swallow this draught, which will lull my body into the sleep of death; and then I will go, and rejoin Ouabi, in the abode of souls."

This discourse quite dismayed St. Castins. He spoke against it every thing that reason, grief, and love could suggest to him most convincing; nothing seemed to be so to the young savage. She wept, but persevered in her design. All that the disconsolate Celario could obtain from her, was a promise, that, though Ouabi should appear to her a second time in a dream, she would wait, before she put herself to death, to be assured of his; of which St. Castins was resolved to know the truth, as soon as possible.

The savages neither exchange nor ransom their prisoners; contenting themselves to rescue them out of the enemy's hands, whenever they can. Sometimes the conqueror destines his captives to slavery; and he oftener puts them to death. Such are particularly the maxims of the Iroquois. There was, therefore, reason to presume, that Ouabi had died of his wounds, or was burnt by that barbarous nation. Azakia believed it to be so, more than any other: but St. Castins would have her at least doubt of it. On his side, he re-animates the courage of the Hurons, and proposes a new enterprise against the enemy. It is approved of—they deliberate upon electing a chief, and all voices unite in favour of St. Castins, who had already given proofs of his valour and conduct. He departs with his troop, but not till after he

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had again Azakia's word, that, notwithstanding all the dreams she might yet have, she would defer, at least till his return, the doleful journey she had designed.

This expedition of the Huron warriors was attended with all imaginable success. The Iroquois believed them to be too much weakened or discouraged, to think of undertaking any thing, and were themselves on their march to come and attack them; but they were no way cautious how they proceeded. It was not so with St. Castins's band of warriors. He had dispatched some of his people to reconnoitre. They discovered the enemy without being seen by them, and returned to give advice thereof to their chief. The ground was found very fit for lying in ambuscade; and the Hurons availed themselves so well of it, that the Iroquois saw themselves hemmed in, when they believed they had no risque to run. They were charged with a fury that left them no time to know where they were. Most of them were killed on the spot; and the remainder maimed, or grievously wounded. The Hurons march off directly to the next village, and surprise the Iroquois assembled there. They were going to enjoy the spectacle of seeing a Huron burnt; and already the Huron was beginning to sing his death song. This, no savage, whom the enemy is ready to put to death, ever fails to do. Loud cries, and a shower of musket balls, soon dispersed the multitude. Both the fugitives, and those that faced about to resist, were killed. All the savage ferocity was fully displayed. In vain St. Castins endeavoured to stop the carnage. With difficulty he saved a small number of women and children. He was apprehensive, particularly, that in the midst of this horrid tumult, Ouabi himself was massacred, supposing he was still living, and was in that habitation. Full of this notion, he ran incessantly from one place to another. He perceived on a spot, where the battle still continued, a prisoner tied to a stake, and having all about him the apparatus of death; that is, combullibles for burning him by a slow fire. The chief of the Hurons flies to this wretched cap-

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tive, breaks his bonds—knows him—and embraces him with transports of joy.—It was Ouabi.

This brave savage had preferred the loss of his life to that of his liberty. He was scarcely cured of his wounds, when life was offered him, on condition of remaining a slave; but he had chosen death, determined to procure it, if refused to him. The Iroquois were a people that would spare him that trouble; and, one moment later, his companions could not have saved him.

After having dispersed or made slaves of the remains of the Iroquois in that quarter, the Huron army marched home. St. Castins wanted to give up the command of it to Ouabi, which he refused. On the way, he informed him of Azakia's purpose to die, persuaded that he was not alive, and that he had required her to follow him; he acquainted him also of the poison she had prepared on that account, and of the delay he had obtained from her with great difficulty. He spoke with a tenderness and emotion that deeply affected the good Ouabi, who called to mind, some things, he had not much attended to, at the time they happened; but he then let him know nothing of what he intended.—They arrive: Azakia, who had another dream, fancied this return as the signal of her fate. But, how great was her surprise, to see, among the number of the living, the husband she was going to meet in the abode of spirits!

At first, she remained motionless and mute; but her joy soon expressed itself by lively caresses and long discourses. Ouabi received the one, and interrupted the others. Afterwards, addressing himself to St. Castins: "Celario," said he, "thou hast saved my life, and, what is still dearer to me, thou hast twice preserved to me Azakia: she therefore belongs more to thee than to me. I belong to thee myself: see whether she be enough to acquit us both. I yield her to thee through gratitude, but would not have yielded her, to deliver myself from the fire kindled by the Iroquois."

What this discourse made St. Castins feel, is hard to be expressed; not that it seemed so ridiculous and strange to him, as it might to many Europeans: he knew that divorces were very fre-

quent among the savages. They separate, as easily as they come together. But, persuaded that Azakia could not be yielded up to him without a supernatural effort—he believed himself obliged to evince equal generosity. He refused what he desired most, and refused in vain—Ouabi's perseverance in his resolution was not to be conquered. As to the faithful Azakia, who had been seen to resist all St. Castins's attacks, and to refuse surviving the husband, whom she believed to be dead, it might perhaps be expected that she would long hold out against the separation her husband had proposed. To this she made not the least objection. She had hitherto complied only with her duty; and thought she was free to listen to her inclination, since Ouabi required it of her. The pieces of the rod of union were brought forth, put together, and burnt. Ouabi and Azakia embraced each other, for the last time, and, from that moment, the young and beautiful Huron was reinstated in all the rights of a maiden. It is also said, that, by the help of some missionaries, St. Castins put her in a condition of becoming his wife, according to the rules prescribed to christians. Ouabi, on his side, broke the rod with the young Zisna; and these two marriages, so different in the form, were equally happy. Each husband, well assured that there were no competitors, forgot that there had been any predecessors.



*Hints for young married women.*

**I**T has often been thought, that the first year after marriage is the happiest of a woman's life. We must first suppose that the marries from motives of affection, or, what the world calls love; and, even in this case, the rule admits of many exceptions, and she encounters many difficulties. She has her husband's temper to study, his family to please, household cares to attend, and, what is worse than all, she must cease to command, and learn to obey. She must learn to submit, without repining, where she has been used to have even her looks studied.

Would the tender lover treat his adored mistress like a rational being, rather than a goddess, a woman's

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task would be rendered much easier, and her life much happier. Would the flatterer pay his devoirs to her understanding, rather than her person, he would soon find his account in it. Would he consult her on his affairs, converse with her freely upon all subjects, and make her his companion and friend, instead of flattering her beauty, admiring her dress, and exalting her beyond what human nature merits, for what can at best be only called fashionable accomplishments, he would find himself less disappointed, and she would rattle the marriage chains with less impatience and difficulty. Now, can a sensibleman expect that the poor vain trifler, to whom he pays so much court, should make an intelligent, agreeable companion, an assiduous and careful wife, a fond and anxious mother?

When a man pays court only to a woman's vanity, he can expect nothing but a fashionable wife, who may shine as a fine lady, but never in the softer intercourse of domestic endearments. How often is it owing to these lords of the creation, that the poor women become, in reality, what their ridiculous partiality made them suppose themselves? A pretty method this is of improving the temper, informing the mind, engaging the affections, and exciting our esteem, for those objects that we entrust with our future happiness.

I will now give my fair friends a few hints with regard to their conduct in the most respectable of all characters, a wife, a mother, and a friend. But first let me assert, and I do it with confidence, that nothing can be more false, than the idea that "a reformed rake makes the best husband!" this is a common opinion, but it is not mine: at least, there are too many chances against it.

A libertine, by the time he can bear to think of matrimony, has little left to boast, but a shattered constitution, empty pocket, tradesmen's bills, bad habits, and a taste for dress, and vices of every denomination. The poor wife's fortune will supply the rake with these fashionable follies a little longer. When money, the last resource, fails, he becomes peevish, sour, and discontented; angry that she can indulge him no longer, and un-

grateful and regardless of her past favours. Disease, with all her miserable attendants, next steps in! ill is he prepared, either in body or mind, to cope with pain, sickness, poverty, and wretchedness. The poor wife has spent her all in supporting his extravagancies. She may now pine for want, with a helpless infant crying for bread; shunned and despised by her friends, and neglected by her acquaintance.

This, my beloved fair, is too often the case with many of our sex. The task of reforming a rake, is much above our capacity. I wish our inclinations, in this instance, were as limited as our abilities; but, alas! we vainly imagine we shall be rewarded for our resolution, in making such trial, by the success that will attend our undertaking.

If a young woman marries an amiable and virtuous young man, she has nothing to fear; she may even glory in giving up her own wishes to his! never marry a man whose understanding will not excite your esteem, and whose virtues will not engage your affections. If a woman once thinks herself superior to her husband, all authority ceases, and she cannot be brought to obey, where she thinks she is so well entitled to command.

Sweetness and gentleness are all a woman's eloquence; and sometimes they are too powerful to be resisted, especially when accompanied with youth and beauty. They are then enticements to virtue, preventatives from vice, and affection's security.

Never let your brow be clouded with resentment! never triumph in revenge! who is it that you afflict? the man upon earth that should be dearest to you! upon whom all your future hopes of happiness must depend. Poor the conquest, when our dearest friend must suffer; and ungenerous must be the heart, that can rejoice in such a victory!

Let your tears persuade: these speak the most irresistible language, with which you can assail the heart of a man. But even these sweet fountains of sensibility must not flow too often, lest they degenerate into weakness, and we lose our husband's esteem and affection, by the very methods which were given us to ensure them.

Study every little attention in your person, manner, and dress, that you find please. Never be negligent in your appearance, because you expect no body but your husband. He is the person whom you should chiefly endeavour to oblige. Always make home agreeable to him: receive him with ease, good humour, and cheerfulness; but be cautious how you enquire too minutely into his engagements abroad. Betray neither suspicion nor jealousy. Appear always gay and happy in his presence. Be particularly attentive to his favourite friends, even if they intrude upon you. A welcome reception will, at all times, counterbalance indifferent fare. Treat his relations with respect and affection; ask their advice in your household-affairs, and always follow it, when you can consistently with propriety.

Treat your husband with the most unreserved confidence, in every thing that regards yourself; but never betray your friends' letters or secrets to him. This, he cannot, and, indeed, ought not to expect. If you do not use him to it, he will never desire it. Be careful never to intrude upon his studies or his pleasures: be always glad to see him, but do not be laughed at, as a fond, foolish wife. Confine your endearments to your own fireside. Do not let the young envy you, nor the old abuse you, for a weakness, which, upon reflexion, you must condemn.

These hints will, I hope, be of some service to my fair country-women. They will, perhaps, have more weight, when they know that the author of them has been married about a year, and has often, with success, practised those rules herself, which she now recommends to others.

ARRIA.



*Fatal consequences of forced nuptials.*

*The wretch who is sentenc'd to die,  
May escape and leave justice behind;  
From his country, perhaps, he may fly.*

*But oh!—Can he fly from his mind?*

**I** Am the most miserable of men; and, notwithstanding it might be more prudent to conceal the cause of my affliction, I find an inclination to dis-

close it in this public manner, too strongly to be resisted. I am a young fellow of five and twenty, neither deformed in my person, nor, I hope, unhappy in my temper; my fortune is easy, my education liberal, and I suppose I am as well calculated to pass in a croud, as the generality of my acquaintance.

About twelve months ago, I fell passionately in love with a young lady, whose beauty, and merit, entitled her to a rank much more exalted than what I could raise her to, though she was much my inferior in point of fortune. She was at that time courted by a young gentleman in the law; and matters had actually gone so far, that a day was appointed for the solemnization of the nuptials. All this I was very well informed of; yet impetuously hurried by the violence of my passion, I disclosed it to the father. He was a man of the world;—my circumstances were much better than his intended son-in-law's; and he paid less attention to the happiness, than he shewed for the advancement, of his daughter. Why should I take up your time, reader? Maria's match with her former lover was immediately broken off, and the unhappy young lady, who never presumed to disobey her father's commands, was torn from the man of her heart, and married to one she could never love.

I was in hopes that a little time, and a tender behaviour on my side, as a man never loved more fondly than myself, would have utterly erased Mr. Bridgegrove from the bosom of my wife, and placed me in his stead. But, had I not been besotted with my love, I might have easily known, that a laudable impression upon the mind of a sensible woman, is never to be eradicated:—no, it is impossible. When a young raw girl, indeed, entertains something like a regard for a man, without knowing the reason of her esteem, it is nothing but a struggle of desire, or, more properly speaking, the wheyness of inclination, which, in a little time, she laughs at herself, and, as she grows in understanding, easily skims off. But, where a woman of sense has placed her affections on a man of merit, the passion is never to be erased; the more she ponders on his worth, the more

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reason she has to love him; and she can never cease to think of his perfections, till she is wholly divested of thought.

Unhappily for me, this was the case. Mr. Bridgegrove possessed the whole heart of Maria, and, in reality, deserved it: he is, perhaps, the most amiable of men, and, poor fellow, loves her to distraction. I have been now married ten months, and have, I flatter myself, expressed every act of tenderness, proper for the lover or the husband, but to no purpose. My wife behaves with the utmost complaisance, is uncommonly solicitous to please, but this conduct is the effect of her good sense, and not the consequence of her love. The little endearing intercourses between husband and wife, are suffered, not enjoyed: if I complain of her coldness, she assumes an air more gay, and affects to be pleased, though I see the starting tear, just bursting from her eye, and know the grief that rankles at her heart. Nay, the more I caress her, the more miserable she is made; and I see her generously lamenting that she cannot place her heart upon the man that possesses her hand, and is not utterly unworthy of her esteem.

O! reader, he must have no delicacy, no feeling, that can bear a circumstance like this, unmoved. How am I frequently torn to madness with reflexion, even when I have her fastened to my bosom, to think her whole soul is at that very moment running on another man. In her sleep, she frequently throws one of her fine arms round my neck, and pronounces the name of Bridgegrove in a manner that distracts me. Our little boy (for she is lately brought to bed) instead of a blessing, is another source of anxiety to us both. I overheard her yesterday morning, weeping over the child, and crying, "my sweet boy, poor Bridgegrove should have been your father." Can any situation be so afflicting as mine?—I have made the most amiable of women forever wretched, and torn a worthy young fellow, from the mistress of his heart. I have brought all my sorrows on myself, with the distressful consideration of having no right to complain. I deserve to be miserable. The man who would meanly hope to be happy

in marriage, by sacrificing the inclination of the woman he loves, and ungenerously loses every regard to her wishes, while he endeavours to gratify his own, has no pretension to felicity. Had I never obtained the possession of Maria, I should not have been half so wretched as I am now: time, and another object, would, perhaps, have enabled me to bear her lols: but now, master of her person, to find another in possession of her heart, and to know that there is one whom she holds considerably dearer than myself, are considerations absolutely insupportable. I cannot dwell any longer on the subject: I shall therefore conclude with an advice to my own sex, never to marry a woman whose heart they know is engaged, nor to take a pitiful advantage of a father's authority, in opposition to her inclination. If she be a good woman, she can never forget her first choice; and if she be bad, will inevitably bring shame and scandal on the second.



*Male coquetry, contemptible.*

THOUGH every body must allow the character of a coquette to be truly detpicable even among women, yet when we find it in the other sex, there is something in it so unmanly, that we feel a detestation equal to our contempt; and look upon the object to be as much an enemy as he is a disgrace to society. To prove my assertion, however, give me leave to relate a circumstance, which lately happened in my own family; and which, if properly attended to, may be of real use to many of your fair readers.

I have been above five years married to a most deserving woman, who, as she studies every thing to promote my happiness, obliges me to shew a grateful sensibility for the establishment of hers; and even warms me with a continual wish of anticipating the most distant of her inclinations. About six months ago, I took her younger sister home, as I knew it would give her satisfaction; intending to supply the loss of a father lately deceased, and to omit no opportunity of advancing her fortune.

My attention could not have been

placed on a more deserving object: Harriot possesses every beauty of person, and every virtue of mind, that can render her either beloved, or respected; and is, in one word, as accomplished a young woman as any in the country, and her fortune is by no means inconsiderable.

Among the number of people who visited at our house, the son of a very eminent citizen frequently obliged us with his company; a circumstance that pleased me not a little, as he was far from a disagreeable man; his person was remarkably genteel, and his face possessed a more than ordinary degree of sensibility; he conversed with much ease, was perfectly acquainted with men and things; and, what rendered him a still greater favourite, he sung with great taste; and played with a considerable share of judgment, on a variety of instruments.

This gentleman had not long commenced an intimacy in my family, before he shewed a very visible attachment for Harriot, hung upon every thing she said, and approved of every thing she did; but, at the same time, seemed rather more ambitious to deserve her esteem, than to solicit it. This I naturally attributed to his modesty, and it still more confirmed me in the opinion which I entertained of his affection: had he treated her with the customary round of common place gallantry, I should never have believed him serious; but when I saw him assume a continual appearance of the most settled veneration and esteem; when I saw him unremittingly studious to catch the smallest opportunity of obliging, I was satisfied there was no affectation in the case, and convinced that every look was the spontaneous effusion of his heart.

The amiable Harriot, unacquainted with art, suspected none; and being of a temper the most generous herself, naturally entertained a favourable opinion of every body else; Mr. Selby, in particular, possessed the highest place in her regard; the winning softness of his manners, the uncommon delicacy of his sentiments, and his profound respect for her, to say nothing of his personal attractions, all united to make an impression on her bosom, and to inspire her with the

tenderest emotions of what she thought a reciprocal love. She made her sister her confidant upon this occasion, about a week ago, and Maria very properly told the matter immediately to me. Finding Harriot's repose was seriously concerned, I determined to give Mr. Selby a fair opportunity of declaring himself the next evening, that there might be no possibility of a mistake in the case, and that my poor girl might be certain she had a heart in exchange for her own. With this view I engaged him on a *tete a tete* party, and while he was lamenting, that my wife and sister were not with us to participate in the amusement, I said gaily, "Egad, Tom, I have a strange notion, that Harriot has done your business; you are eternally talking of her, when she's absent, and as eternally languishing at her, when she's by: how is all this? come, own, have I been right in my guess? and treat me with the confidence of a friend."

This question quite disconcerted him; he blushed, stammered, and, with a good deal of pressing, at last drawled out, "that Miss Harriot, to be sure, was a most deserving young lady; and that, were he inclined to alter his condition, there was not a woman in the world he would be so proud of having for a wife. But, tho' he was extremely sensible of her merit, he had never considered her in any light but that of a friend, and was, to the last degree, concerned, if any little affiduities, the natural result of his esteem, had once been misinterpreted, and placed to a different account."

The whole affair was now out, the man's character was immediately before me; and tho' I could have sacrificed him on the spot, for the meanness and barbarity of his conduct, yet I bridled my resentment, and would not indulge him with a triumph over Harriot, by letting him see I considered his late declaration as a matter of any consequence; I therefore assumed a gaiety, which was quite a stranger to my heart, and replied, "I am excessively glad, Tom, to hear you talk in this manner: faith, I was afraid all had been over with you; and my friendship for you was the only reason of my enquiry; as I

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shrewdly suspect the young baggage has already made a disposal of her inclinations."

After passing a joyless evening, we parted, quite sick of one another's company; and pretty confidently determined to have no intercourse for the future.

I went to Maria, and told her how things had turned out, and desired her to break them with all the delicacy she was mistress of, to her unfortunate sister; she did so; but the shock is likely to prove fatal. Harriot has ever since kept her bed, and, for the three last days, has been quite delirious: she raves continually on the villain, who has murdered her peace of mind, and my ever-engaging Maria sits rivetted to the bed-side, as continually drenched in tears. In spite of all my endeavours to keep the matter private, the tattling of nurses and servants has made it but too public, and denied us even the happiness of being secretly miserable. The moment I heard it talked of, I called upon Mr. Selby and demanded satisfaction: but could I expect a man to be brave, who was capable of acting such a part as his, to a woman of honesty and virtue? No, sir, he called his servants about me in his own house, and after my departure, went and swore the peace before a magistrate. This is the only method which I have now left to punish him, and the only one also of exhorting parents and guardians to require an instant explanation from any man, who seems remarkably assiduous about a young lady, and yet declines to make a positive declaration of his sentiments.



*Character of a well-bred man. By a lady.*

SOME have supposed the fine gentleman and the well bred man to be synonymous characters; but I will make it appear that nothing can be more widely different; the former leaves nature entirely, the latter improves upon her. He is neither a slave nor an enemy to pleasure; but approves or rejects, as his reason shall direct. He is above stooping to flatter a knave, though possessed of a title; nor ever over-looks merit, though he should find it in a cottage.

His behaviour is affable and respectful, yet not cringing or formal; and his manners easy and unaffected. He misses no opportunity wherein he can oblige his friends, yet does it in so delicate a manner, that he seems rather to have received than conferred a favour. He does not profess a passion he never felt, to impose upon the credulity of a silly woman; nor will he injure another's reputation, to please her vanity. He cannot love where he does not esteem, nor ever suffers his passion to overcome his reason. In his friendship he is steady and sincere, and lives less for himself than for his friend.



*American Anecdote.*

DURING the war before last, a company of Indian savages defeated an English detachment. The conquered could not escape so swiftly as the conquerors pursued. They were taken, and treated with such barbarity, as is hardly to be equalled even in these savage countries.

A young English officer being pursued by two savages, who approached him with uplifted hatchets, and seeing that death was inevitable, determined to sell his life dearly. At this instant an old savage, armed with a bow, was preparing to pierce his heart with an arrow; but scarcely had he assumed that posture, when he suddenly let fall his bow, and threw himself between the young officer and his barbarian combatants, who instantly retired with respect.

The old Indian took the Englishman by the hand, dispelled all his fears by his caresses, and conducted him to his cabin, where he always treated him with that tenderness, which cannot be affected. He was less his master than his companion; taught him the Indian language, and made the rude acts of that country familiar to him. They lived contentedly together, and one thing only disturbed the young Englishman's tranquility: the old man would sometimes fix his eyes on him, and, while he surveyed him attentively, tears fell in torrents from his eyes.

On the return of spring, however, they recommenced hostilities, and every one appeared in arms. The

old man, who had yet strength sufficient to support the toils of war, set off with the rest, accompanied by his prisoner. The Indian having marched above two hundred leagues through forests, at last arrived on the borders of a plain, where they discovered the English camp.

The old savage, observing the young man's countenance, shewed him the English camp. "There are thy brethren (said he to him) waiting to fight us. Be attentive. I have saved thy life. I have taught thee to make a canoe, a bow, and arrows; to surprise an enemy in the forest, to manage the hatchet, and to carry off a scalp. What wast thou, when I first conducted thee into my cabin? Thy hands were like those of a child; they served neither to support nor defend thee: thy soul was buried in the obscurity of night; you knew nothing; but from me you have learned every thing. Wilt thou be so ungrateful, with a view to reconcile yourself to your brethren, as to lift up the hatchet against us?"

The young Englishman protested, that he would rather a thousand times lose his own life, than shed the blood of one of his Indian friends.

The old savage covered his face with his hands, and bowed his head. After having been some time in that posture, he looked on the young Englishman, and said to him, in a tone mixed with tenderness and grief, "hast thou a father?"—He was living (said the young man) when I quitted my country." Oh! how unfortunate is he!" cried the old man; and after a moment's silence, he added, "knowest thou that I have been a father? I am no more such! I saw my son fall in battle; he fought by my side; my son fell covered with wounds, and died like a man! but I revenged his death, yes, I revenged it."

He pronounced these words in great agitation; his whole body trembled, and sighs and groans, which with difficulty found their way, almost suffocated him; his eyes lost their usual serenity, and his sighs could not find a passage from his heart. By degrees, he became more serene, and turning towards the east, where the sun was rising, he said to the young man; "seest thou that gilded heaven,

which spreads abroad its resplendent light? Does it afford thee any pleasure to behold it?" "Yes," said the Englishman, "the sight adds new vigour to my heart." Ah, thou happy man; but to me it affords no pleasure!" replied the savage, shedding a flood of tears. A moment afterwards, he shewed the young man a shrub in bloom; "seest thou that beautiful flower? (said he) hast thou pleasure in beholding it?" Yes, I have," replied the young man. "To me it no longer affords any," answered the savage halily, and then concluded with these words: "Be gone, hasten to thy own country, that thy father may have pleasure in beholding the rising sun, and the flowers of the spring."



*Indian anecdote.*

COL. Joseph Dudley, governor of New England, was building a house on his plantation, and as he was looking upon his workmen, he took notice of a luffy Indian, who, though the weather was severely cold, was a naked, as well as an idle spectator. "Harkye, you Indian, (said the governor,) why don't you work, as these men do, and get cloaths to cover you?"—"And why you no work, governor?" replied the Indian. "I work," returned the governor, clapping his fore finger upon his forehead, "with my head, and therefore need not work with my hands." "Well," replied the Indian, "and if I would work, what have you for me to do?" "go kill me a calf," said the governor, "and I will give you a shilling." The fellow did so; the governor asked why he did not skin and dress it? "Calf dead, governor," said the Indian, *give me my shilling; give me another, and I will skin and dress him.*" This was complied with, and away went the Indian to a tavern with his two shillings. He soon drank one in rum, and then returned to the governor, "*Your shilling bad, the man no take it.*" The governor believed him, and gave him another; but returning in the same manner with the second, the governor discerned that he was a rogue; however, he exchanged that, too, reserving his resentment for another opportunity,

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which he thought he should find no great difficulty in procuring.

To accomplish this, the governor wrote a letter to the keeper of Bridewell, at Boston, to take the bearer and give him a sound whipping. This letter he kept in his pocket, and in a few days, the Indian came again to stare at the workmen: the governor took no notice of him for some time, but at last pulling the letter out of his pocket, said, "if you will carry this to Boston, I will give you half a crown." The Indian closed with his proposal, and set out upon his journey. He had not gone far, before he met another Indian, belonging to the governor, to whom he gave the letter, and told him that his master had sent him to meet him, and to bid him return with that letter to Boston, as soon as he possibly could.

The poor Indian carried it with great diligence, and received a sound whipping for his pains; at the news of which, the governor was not a little astonished on his return. The other Indian came no more: but, at the distance of some months, at a meeting with some of his nation, the governor saw this fellow there amongst the rest, and asked him, how he durst serve him such a trick? the Indian looking him full in the face, and clapping his forefinger upon his forehead, "head work! governor," said he, "head work!"

*Dr. Barnaby relates the following anecdote of dr. Franklin.*

IN his travels through New England, he had observed, that when he went into an inn, every individual of the family had a quession or two to propose to him, relative to his history; and that, till each was satisfied, and they had conferred and compared together their information, there was no possibility of procuring any refreshment.—Therefore the moment he went into any of these places, he enquired for the master, the mistress, the sons, the daughters, the men-servants, and the maid-servants; and having assembled them all together, he began in this manner. "Good people, I am Benjamin Franklin of Philadelphia; by trade a printer; and a bachelor; I have some relations at Boston, to

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whom I am going to make a visit: my stay will be short, and I shall then return and follow my business, as a prudent man ought to do. This is all I know of myself, and all I can possibly inform you of; I beg, therefore, that you will have pity upon me and my horse, and give us both some refreshment."



*The bow.*

AN African prince, subdued in battle, capitulated for his bow and quiver;—a bauble bought his life. A British merchant sent him to South Carolina, where he was sold as a slave. A placid countenance, and submissive manners, marked his resignation; and preserved him, in all situations, the possession of his arms—the only companions he had left—the sole objects of his affections. His stateliness and strength recommended him to colonel Morte, a humane master, in whose service he died, in steadfast faith of a certain resurrection in his native state.

The bow and quiver were preserved as relics of a faithful slave, in the colonel's family, who gratefully remember the services, the fortitude, and the fidelity of the truly, the gentle Iambo.

In the campaign of 1781, the widow of colonel Morte (who died a patriot) was banished from her house, on the river Congaree, then fortified by a British garrison; the garrison was besieged by a small detachment from the American army, whose approaches were soon within bow-shot. The widow, who lived in a cottage, in sight of the fort, was informed that the preservation of her house was the only impediment to its immediate reduction—and she was informed of the expedient proposed.—Here, said she, (presenting the African bow and quiver) are the materials—Iambo never used these arrows, and I fear they are poisoned; use them not, therefore, even against your enemies—but take the bow, any arrow will wait a match. Spare not the house, for you expel the foe. The blazing roof produced submission—the Britons dropped their arms—the Americans entered the house, and both joined to extinguish the flames.

The misfortunes of a prince, and  
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the heroism of a lady, are not uncommon—the novelty is the bow—a stem of genuine bamboo—which, destined for the defence of liberty in Africa, served the same cause in America—was preserved by an officer, of the patriot army—presented to Mr. Peale—and is now deposited in his Museum.



*Letter to the Philadelphia county society for the promotion of agriculture and domestic manufactures.*

GENTLEMEN,

OUR farmers in Pennsylvania have hitherto been too much in the practice of depending on the annual decay of weeds, arising in a course of years from their worn-out fields, for the principal source of nourishment to their crops. It is time a different plan should be adopted, if we expect to derive that advantage from our farms, which they will afford, by a proper cultivation. This must be effected by giving the ground a full dressing of twenty large cart-loads of good stable manure to the acre, every seven or eight years; and adapting a rotation of productive crops during that period. In this system, clover is absolutely necessary, as forming the basis of the whole, and without which, no valuable plan of agriculture can be pursued. Clover, well put in, and having a top dressing of Plaster of Paris, six bushels to the acre, will afford, the first year, three tons of good hay to the acre; the second year, it may be cut once, and afterwards pastured to the middle of October; the third year, it will afford excellent pasture to your hogs, sheep, and milch cows, during the summer. In the month of September, it may be ploughed, and immediately sowed with winter barley; and afterwards with wheat, or other grain, as best suits the inclination, or the interest of the farmer. A plantation, properly divided into fields, for such a rotation of crops, would annually afford a sufficiency of hay, pasture, and a variety of the most useful and profitable crops, without leaving a single acre of ground unproductive.

Considering clover as necessary to the best plan of conducting a farm, it is the duty of every real friend to this necessary science, to promote the cultivation of it. A great obstacle to

the propagation of this valuable plant, arises from the extravagant price of the seed, owing to the difficulty of cleansing it. Could this difficulty be obviated, clover seed might be sold at one-half the price now demanded for it.

I beg leave to communicate to the society some information I lately received from Mr. Henry Wynkoop, on this subject. Mr. Wynkoop says, that, in the state of New York, where they have been long in the custom of raising clover seed for sale, after the hay is threshed, the heads of the clover are put into a hoghead, to which is added a sufficient quantity of water to moisten the whole, in order to induce a fermentation. The farmer should carefully attend to this critical operation, and suffer the fermentation to proceed only as far as to affect the capsules, or chaff, without injuring the seed. After this operation, the clover-heads are spread on a barn floor to dry, when a slight threshing will easily extricate the seed. The Germans, in Lancaster county, procure the seed of timothy, by first submitting it to a slight degree of fermentation. The hay, intended for seed, is bound in small sheaves, and then put up into a stack, having the heads damped with a little water, sufficient to produce a slight degree of fermentation, without injuring the seed.

The above plan appears to me reasonable. I shall therefore make a trial of it, and shall communicate the result of the experiment to the society. Other members doing the same, a comparison of our observations may tend to throw some light on the subject, and the publication of them, supported by the opinion of the society, may be attended with some advantage to our fellow citizens.

I am, &c.

GEORGE LOGAN.

Stenton, September 5, 1789.



*Valuable properties of the elder tree.*

THE elder tree possesses the following valuable properties: 1. Saving turnips from the fly. 2. Preserving wheat from the yellows. 3. Preserving fruit trees from the blight. 4. Preserving cabbage plants from caterpillars. The fact has been

ascertained by his British majesty's privy council, in their inquiries relative to the Hessian fly. The dwarf elder has the most potent effluvia; and it requires no other trouble, than to strew the leaves over the ground, or to strike fruit trees with the twigs."

*To the manufacturers of pot and pearl-ash.*

THE price of pot and pearl-ash, for several years past, has been much reduced, and does not afford the manufacturers a due compensation for their trouble, besides their being deprived of one half the profit, that might be made on those ashes that are exported, called the second and third qualities. It is attended with a disadvantageous consequence to export any of them, or to let the English import any except of the first quality, as they have got into a method of refining salts and bad pot-ash in England, of late, which has reduced the price of our first kind of ashes at least five pounds sterling per ton, besides the duty they demand of us. It is well known to be the greatest branch of manufacture in the five northern states: and as the duty and freight are the same on the second and third, as on the first quality, and we have works prepared for the purpose, and are ready to pay the cash for the second and third qualities, it behoves us in season, to prevent foreigners from receiving three quarters of the profits of our most material cash article.

*New-port, August 12, 1789.*

*Thoughts on the rot in sheep. From the letters of the Bath agriculture society*

THE cause of the rot in sheep, says Mr. Boswell, in his late useful and ingenious publication, is unknown.—Mr. Arthur Young, in recapitulating all the information he could get, in his Eastern Tour, observes, that the "accounts are so amazingly contradictory, that nothing can be gathered from them;" but concludes, "that every one knows that moisture is the cause."

In differing from an author of Mr. Young's acknowledged merit, supported by the general opinion of mankind, I am led to examine my own

sentiments with caution and distrust; but, unless it is only meant, that moisture is generally the remote cause, it will be difficult to account for the rot being taken on fallows in a single day, and in water meadows sometimes in half an hour, when in grounds of a different sort, although excessively wet and slabby, sheep will remain for many weeks together, uninjured.

Another opinion, which has many adherents, is, that the rot is owing to the quick growth of grass, or herbs, that grow in wet places.

Without premising, that all-bounteous Providence has given to every animal its peculiar taste, by which it distinguishes the food proper for its preservation and support, (if not vitiated by fortuitous circumstances) it seems very difficult to discover on philosophical principles, why the quick growth of grass should render it noxious;—or why any herb should at one season produce fatal effects, by the admission of pure water only into its component parts, which, at other times, is perfectly innocent, although brought to its utmost strength and maturity, by the genuine influence of the sun. So far from agreeing with those who attribute the rot to quick-growing grass, which they call flashy, insipid, and destitute of salts, to mercurial quickness of growth is a proof of its being endued with the most active principles of vegetation, and is one of the criterions of its superior excellence. Besides, the constant practice of most farmers, who, with the greatest security, feed their meadows in the spring, when the grass shoots quick, and is full of juices, militates directly against this opinion.

Let us now consider, whether another cause may not be aligned more reconcileable with the various accounts we receive of this disorder. If our arguments, however specious, are contradictory to known facts, instead of conducting us in the plain paths of truth, they leave us in the mazes of error and uncertainty.

Each species of vegetables and animals has its peculiar soil, situation, and food, assigned to it. Taught by unerring instinct, "the sparrow findeth her a house, the swallow a nest, and the stork in the heavens knoweth her appointed time." The whole sea-

thered tribe, indeed, display a wonderful sagacity and variety in the choice and structure of their habitations. Nor can it be doubted, that the minutest reptile has its fixed laws, appointed by Him, whose "tender mercies are over all his works."

The numerous inhabitants of the air, earth, and waters, are strongly influenced by the seasons, and by the state of the atmosphere; and the same causes, perhaps, that rapidly call myriads of one species into being, may frequently prove the destruction of another. Is it then improbable, that some insect finds its food, and lays its eggs, on the tender succulent grass, found on particular soils, (especially wet ones) which it most delights in?—or, that this insect should, after a redundancy of moisture, by an instinctive impulse, quit its dark and dreary habitation, and its fecundity be greatly increased by such seasons, in conjunction with the prolific warmth of the sun?

The flesh-fly lays her eggs upon her food, which also serves to support her future offspring; and the common earthworm propagates its species above ground, when the weather is mild and moist, or the earth dewy.

The eggs, deposited on the tender germ, are conveyed with the food into the stomach and intestines of the animals, whence they are received into the lacteal vessels, carried off in the chyle, and pass into the blood; nor do they meet with any obstruction, until they arrive at the capillary vessels of the liver.—Here, as the blood filtrates through the extreme branches, answering to those of the Vena Porta in the human body, the fecerning vessels are too minute, to admit the impregnated ova, which, adhering to the membrane, produce those animalcula that feed upon the liver, and destroy the sheep. They much resemble the flat fish called plaice, are sometimes as large as a silver two-pence, and are found both in the liver and in the pipe, (answering to that of the vena cava) which conveys the blood from the liver to the heart.

If the form of this animal is unlike any thing we meet with among the insect tribe, we should consider, that it may be so small in its natural state, as to escape our observation.—Or, might

not its form have changed with its situation?—"The caterpillar undergoes several changes before it produces a butterfly."

The various accounts, which every diligent enquirer must have met with, (as well as the indefatigable m<sup>r</sup>. Young) seem very consistent with the theory of this disorder.

If dry limed land, in Derbyshire, will rot, in common with water-meadows, and stagnant marshes—if some springy lands rot, when others are perfectly safe—is it owing to the circumstance of water, or that of producing the proper food or nest of the insect? Those who find their after-grass rot till the autumnal watering, and safe afterwards, might probably be of opinion, that the embryo laid there in the summer, is then washed away or destroyed.

With regard to those lands, that are accounted never safe, if there is not something peculiar in the soil or situation, which allures or forces the insect to quit its abode at unusual seasons, it may be well worth enquiring, whether from the coarseness of their nature or for want of being sufficiently fed, there is not some grass in these lands always left of a sufficient length to secure the eggs of the insect above the reach of the water.

Such who assert that flowing water alone is the cause of the rot, can have but little acquaintance with the Somersetshire clays, and are diametrically opposite to those who find their worst land for rotting cured by watering. Yet, may not the water which produces this effect, be impregnated with particles destructive to the insect, or to the tender germ which serves for its food or nest?

For solving another difficulty, that "no ewe ever rots while she has a lamb by her side," the gentlemen of the faculty can best inform us, whether it is not probable that the impregnated ovum passes into the milk, and never arrives at the liver. The same learned gentlemen may think the following question also not unworthy their consideration:

Why is the rot fatal to sheep, hares, and rabbits, (and sometimes to calves) when cattle of greater bulk, which probably take the same food, escape uninjured?



Is the digestive matter, in the stomach of these, different from that of the others, and such as will turn the ova into a state of corruption; or, rather, are not the secretory ducts in the liver, large enough to let them pass through, and be carried off in the usual current of the blood?

It seems to be an acknowledged fact, that salt marshes never rot. Salt is pernicious to most insects. They never infest gardens where sea-weed is laid. Common salt and water is a powerful expellent of worms, bred in the human body.

I could wish the intelligent farmer would consider these truths with attention, and not neglect a remedy which is cheap and always at hand.

Lille, in his book of husbandry, informs us of a farmer, who cured his whole flock of the rot, by giving each sheep a handful of Spanish salt, for five or six mornings successively. The hint was probably taken from the Spaniards, who frequently give their sheep salt to keep them healthy.

On some farms, perhaps, the utmost caution cannot always prevent the disorder. In wet and warm seasons, the prudent farmer will remove his sheep from the lands liable to rot. Those who have it not in their power to do this, I would advise to give each sheep a spoonful of common salt, with the same quantity of flour, in a quarter of a pint of water, once or twice a week. When the rot is recently taken, the same remedy, given four or five mornings successively, will, in all probability, effect a cure. The addition of the flour and water will, in the opinion of the writer of this, not only abate the pungency of the salt, but dispose it to mix with the chyle in a more friendly and efficacious manner.

Were it in my power to communicate to the society the result of actual experiment, it would doubtless be more satisfactory. They will, however, I am persuaded, accept of these hints, at least as an earnest of my desire to be serviceable. Should they only tend to awaken the attention of the industrious husbandman, or to excite the curiosity of some other enquirer, who has more leisure and greater abilities, I shall have the satisfaction of thinking, that my specu-

lations, however imperfect, are not entirely useless.

BENJAMIN PRICE.



*American maple sugar and melasses.*

*An estimate of the capacity of the sugar maple lands of New York, or Pennsylvania, to supply the demand of the united states, for sugar and melasses.*

*The demand.*

BY authentic documents, obtained from the custom-house of Philadelphia, it appears that the medium importation of brown sugar, for each year, from 1785, to 1789, is

5,692,848

—Loaf sugar, on a medium,

4,480

—Melasses 543,900 gallons, which, at 10 lbs. per gallon, is 5,439,000 lbs. half of which weight in sugar may be considered as equal to 543,900 gallons of melasses,

2,719,500

Total importation into Philadelphia, per annum,

8,416,828

Supposing the whole importation of the union, to be five times that of Philadelphia, the demand for the united states, will then be 42,084,140 pounds weight.

*The capacity of supply.*

Mr. William Cooper (of Cooper's town, on the Otsego Lake) upon experience and enquiry, gives information, that there are usually made from a tree, five pounds of sugar, and that there are fifty trees on an acre, at a medium. But suppose only four pounds to a tree, and twenty trees to an acre, then 105,210 acres will yield 8,416,828 pounds weight. And supposing, as above stated, the whole demand of the union 42,084,140 lbs. or five times the importation into Philadelphia, then 420,600 acres will supply the united states. It need not be observed, that there are three times 526,000 acres of sugar maple lands in each of the states of New York and Pennsylvania, which are particularly mentioned, from their being known to the estimator.

The sugar maple tree is found, how-

ever, in great abundance, in many other parts of the united states.

It will be frankly admitted, that the result of the above estimate, has a wild and visionary appearance; but as it is made upon a moderate statement of facts, very carefully ascertained, and as the whole calculation is freely exposed to examination, it will not be unsafe to place some confidence in it, until exaggeration of fact or error shall be pointed out.

*A friend of manufactures.*

*Method of making sugar in the West-India Islands, from the juice of the sugar cane, when cured in hogs-heads, as in Antigua.*

AS soon as a sufficient quantity of juice is procured, it is put into the kettle, under which a good fire is made, and no scum is taken off, until the liquor is nearly ready to boil; which is discovered by the scum's cracking or parting. Then the scum is taken off, and a person is kept constantly skimming it, as the scum rises, until it becomes sugar. This is discovered by it's granulating, or the grain appearing upon the skimmer or ladle: it is then immediately taken out of the kettle, and put into a cooler, where it remains, until it is blood warm. Then it is put into casks, with small holes at the bottom, in order that the melasses may drain out. After remaining in the casks two or three weeks, it is fit for use, and is sent to market.

*N. B.* A small quantity of unslacked lime is put into the kettle, when the juice is warm, or before; say about three table-spoonfuls to one hundred gallons. Large copper skimmers and ladles with long wooden handles, are made use of; a good fire is kept under the kettle, from the time of the juice being put in, until it becomes sugar.

*Receipt for the cure of the scurvy, leprosy, &c.*

*To the PRINTER.*

*Sir,*

I Request permission to present the public with a receipt of a most valuable and sovereign remedy, from the vegetable kingdom, which, by ample and extensive experience, has

hitherto been found to prove extremely powerful and efficacious in entirely eradicating, with perfect ease and safety, every species of scurvy, leprosy, and all disorders whatever, which derive their origin from any impurities of the blood and juices. Those, afflicted with the scrophula, vulgarly called the king's evil, though in general an hereditary disease, by duly persevering in the regular use of it, will assuredly find such amazing benefit, as happily to convince them of its great value and utility. In the very worst stages of the true rheumatism, its effects are remarkably successful; and I know not any thing in the whole *materia medica*, that bids fairer to prove of infinite service also in the gout. The medicine, which I now lay before the public, is an agreeable vegetable syrup, very easily made, exceedingly pleasant to take, and at the same time so mild and safe in its operation, as not in the least to endanger or disturb the economy of the human frame (which is so often the case with many medicines, that the remedy sometimes proves worse than the disease) attended likewise with the satisfaction of knowing, together with the liberty of freely examining and investigating, upon the true principles of botany, every ingredient of which it is composed. Even with the veronica alone (male speedwell) the great Boerhaave, in his history of plants, declares, that he has cured above a hundred diseases; and many of the inhabitants of France can also testify the very powerful and happy effects of that single plant in removing a great variety of disorders.

I have only to observe, that the present season of the year is the most proper time to enter upon a course of the above-mentioned syrup.

*July 12*

*Recipe.*

Take of the leaves of male speedwell, four ounces; bark of elder, two ounces; winter's bark, three ounces; angelica root, sliced thin, half a pound; comfrey root, fennel root, of each (sliced) four ounces.

Boil these ingredients together in two gallons of soft water, over a slow fire, till one half is consumed; then strain off the decoction into a clean earthen pan, and let it stand all night

to settle; in the morning, carefully pour off the clear liquor, from the sediment, and dissolve therein three pounds of treble refined sugar, and two pounds of virgin honey, which are to be gently simmered into a thin syrup.

The dose is a large tea cup full, night and morning, or rather in some cases, morning, noon, and night; adding to each dose, at the time of taking it, a small tea-spoonful of the late celebrated dr. Huxham's essence of antimony, which greatly heightens and improves the virtue of the medicine.



*Reflexions on the gout—By James S. Gilliam, M. D. of Petersburg, Virginia.*

**T**HE causes of the slow and fluctuating progress of our knowledge of the gout, are sufficiently manifest.

The pathology of diseases, by which the aid of the physician has, in every age, been in a great measure regulated, is only to be deduced from an ample collection of facts. Hence, discoveries in medicine, have seldom been the offspring of superficial observation; at least the labour and genius of several successive ages are required to determine the extent of their utility and application.

From the records of physicians, we are not enabled to decide, at what period the gout originated, or became an object of investigation: but the simple manner of life, in practice with the early inhabitants of the world, must, for a considerable time, have interrupted its occurrence. The most permanent causes, however, of its not being contemplated as a new appearance of disease, seems to be the proximity of its symptoms to the rheumatism. Mankind, biased by an idea, that, amidst the uncertainty of human reasoning, experience is the best guide, have seldom allowed a sufficiently ample range to their reflexion and judgment, in discriminating new genera of disease.

The knowledge of the gout was extremely limited in ancient Greece and Rome: and for many centuries subsequent to the fall of the latter, the culture of medicine languished, with the general wreck of literature in Eu-

rope. Traditional knowledge being considered as the ultimate extent of human investigation, no efforts towards discovery were to be expected. Nor was the revival of learning immediately productive of beneficial effects with regard to medicine. The philosophy of Aristotle, subtlety interwoven in the healing art, continued still to corrupt the practice of medicine. It was not, till near the close of the seventeenth century, that a perfect history of the gout appeared. But the learned author seems to have neglected an exposition of the cause of that complaint—perhaps, from the difficulty of distinguishing cause from effect, as the symptoms of the gout are various, and many of them have a relation to other diseases. The pre-eminence of small beer to wine, which he wishes to establish, I apprehend, will not be generally admitted.

It is at present a prevalent opinion, that there are different states of the gout, each requiring a diversity of treatment: but, as all of them arise from the same cause, and frequently succeed each other, in a short space of time, in the same patient—the habit of body, and seat affected, modifying the effect—we presume, that accuracy of discrimination is in this instance by no means attainable, or necessary. Nosologists, who have attempted it, vary extremely; and their labours do not obviously lead to practical utility.

Whether the gout be an hereditary disease or not, is a query, perhaps not reducible to a satisfactory resolution. It has been observed more generally to prevail in certain families than in others, nearly under the same circumstances: and perhaps a peculiarity or imbecillity of temperament is transmitted from parent to offspring, which the operation of future exciting causes may, at an earlier period of life than usual, awaken into the gout. This disease, however, so frequently occurs, without our being able to trace it to any hereditary predisposition, that the influence of this cause is in most cases extremely equivocal. The state of the system, on which the gout depends, is probably a general debility, especially affecting the extremities, on account of the languor of the circulation in those parts. For, although

we do not believe that a gout ever arises from a vitiation of the fluids, or any defect primarily existing in them—it is evident, that the morbid state of the moving powers of the system, may be considerably increased, by a deficiency of the circulation. Hence, the utility of covering the part affected, with flannel, is abundantly obvious. Cayenne pepper and gum guaiacum in tafia, may also as general stimuli, afford temporary relief; but the inexperienced should be cautious in receiving the opinions of the panegyrists of those remedies, as they do not reflect, that stimulants are various in their operation. Wine, ardent spirits, æther, opium, gum guaiacum, Cayenne pepper, alkaline salts, and blisters, are temporary and diffusive in their effects; and are chiefly to be employed, where the symptoms are very violent. No durable relief can be expected from them. They are generally sudden in their operation, and should be considered as preparative to the employment of the bark, exercise, jellies, or rich soups without vegetables. These are durable stimulants, and should, as far as our experience informs, be used in all appearances of the gout.

I suppose the gout of the stomach and bowels to depend on the same cause with the other forms of that complaint; but, on account of the tender structure and particular connexion of these organs, with the rest of the system, I would recommend the remedies to be more fully and diligently administered, than in any other instances. In affections of the stomach, I have known it impossible to administer the bark, without the previous application of a blister, which I have never known to fail, in producing the most salutary effects in such cases. When the bowels are affected, it will be best to unite a little cinnamon with the bark. To prevent a return of the gout, I always recommend the use of the bark to be continued, during the intervals of relief.

Sulphur has lately been recommended as a remedy for the gout; but its good effects can only extend to the preservation of a lax habit of body, where there is reason to apprehend injury from constipation. In any other view, it will rather debilitate the pa-

tient, than abate the progress of the disease.

Where patients complain of considerable thirst, the use of the vitriolic acid I have found extremely beneficial: and, if a distressing acidity prevail, alkaline salts may be occasionally taken with advantage.

From our view of the subject, it will readily be inferred, that bleeding, purgatives, or emetics, cannot be employed with safety in the gout; and that the efficacy of the Peruvian bark, blisters, exercise, and jellies, is superior to the Portland powder; a remedy, I conceive, to have been deservedly in high estimation. I cannot imagine, with some physicians, that the subduction of a disease from the constitution, can endanger its existence. If apoplexy or asthma have accompanied the removal of the gout, they have not directly originated from that cause. The obesity induced by the return of appetite and digestion, in a system long enfeebled by a violent disease, may predispose to apoplexy. And it would be prudent to regulate such predisposition by exercise and diet. But as the asthma is generally allowed to be a disease not connected with any particular temperament of the whole body, but a particular constitution of the lungs, it surely cannot arise from the removal of the gout.

Petersburg, May 21, 1789.



*Resolves respecting the education of poor female children.*

THE Massachusetts charitable society, having considered, at a late meeting of their members, the expediency of calling the public attention to the want of female education among the poorer class of inhabitants in this metropolis; and having themselves founded a school for the instruction of the poor female children, of such of their own members as may be reduced to adversity, have thought proper to publish their intentions on the subject, hoping that the benevolent will encourage and enlarge the design.

The said society would have been gratified, could they have extended the benefits of their school so as to have comprehended the poor female children in general: but they find



that this cannot be done consistently with their charter, unless by some assistance out of the society. If such assistance shall be given, the above-mentioned institution may be increased to one large and common establishment; where, not only the poor female children of said society, but also any others belonging to the town can be instructed.

Corresponding with this idea, the following articles, as adopted by the society, are published by their order:

1st. That nothing has a more certain tendency to promote the happiness and usefulness of individuals, than an early and well projected method of education, as they are thereby enabled to acquire an easy and reputable subsistence, and, consequently rendered valuable members of the community to which they belong.

2d. That, for want of the proper means of education and employment, the children of the reduced, and of the indigent in general, are frequently in a manner lost to society; or, what is worse, become a prey to vice, to misery, and infamy.

3d. That, under a republican form of government, especially, the consequences of ignorance are in a great measure subversive of the principles on which such government is founded; for it is a maxim, drawn from nature and experience, that the only means of inducing the people to make a proper use of their liberty, is to enlighten, instruct, and employ them.

4th. And, whereas the extensive influence of females, on the manners and habits of society, as universally experienced and acknowledged, must render their education a proper object of the most serious attention; and yet very small advantages are enjoyed, especially by the indigent, for instruction in the branches of knowledge, peculiarly useful to the sex: therefore, an institution, for conferring upon the female children of reduced members of this society, the advantages of a judicious system of female education, may prevent the distresses which they might otherwise be called upon to relieve, and operate as one of the most effectual exercises of charity and benevolence, within the power of this society; and that a small sum, expended for this valuable pur-

pose, by producing effects important and permanent, would be more beneficial, than a much larger sum granted in the usual way, as a temporary relief of present distress.

5th. That, from these considerations, and upon these principles, it is hereby resolved, that a sum be assigned for employing a proper person or persons, to superintend the instruction of such female children, or orphans of reduced members of this society, as shall choose to avail themselves of such provision, and for otherwise supporting an institution to be founded for the above purpose.

6th. That, until such institution shall be completed, the said sum, with the interest thereof, shall be considered as an accumulating fund, appropriated for this purpose alone, and, if judged expedient hereafter, the society shall augment the appropriation.

7th. That, so soon as a sufficient fund shall be established, proper measures shall be taken for procuring one or more persons to superintend a school in the town of Boston, under such regulations and directions as shall hereafter be appointed.

8th. That, should any additional grant, bequest, or devise, be hereafter made, by members, or others, to the society; for the express purpose of extending the advantage of such institution, to the female children of the poor at large, or in certain proportions, as the funds shall admit; such grants, &c. shall be used and employed for that purpose alone, so as to form a school for female education in general, according to rules and regulations hereafter to be made: and, for this purpose, the society will cheerfully concur with any man, or body of men, for completing an institution, of this kind, on the most broad and liberal basis.

By order of the society,

THOMAS DAWES, *president*,  
Boston, December 23, 1786.



*Copy of a letter written by major general Greene, after the action at Gilford court-house, to the society of Friends at New Garden, with the society's answer.*

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*Friends and countrymen,*

**I** Address myself to your humanity, for the relief of the suffering wounded at Guilford court-house. As a people, I am persuaded, you disclaim any connexion with measures calculated to promote military operations; but, I know of no order of men more remarkable for the exercise of humanity and kind benevolence; and, perhaps, no instance ever had a higher claim upon you, than the unfortunate wounded, now in your neighbourhood.

I was born and educated, in the professions and principles of your society; and am perfectly acquainted with your religious sentiments, and general good conduct, as citizens. I am also sensible, from the prejudices of many belonging to other religious societies, and the misconduct of a few of your own, that you are generally considered as enemies to the independence of America: I entertain other sentiments, both of your principles and wishes.

I respect you as a people, and shall always be ready to protect you, from every violence and oppression, which the confusion of the times afford but too many instances of.

Don't be deceived; this is no religious dispute; the contest is for political liberty; without which, cannot be enjoyed the free exercise of your religion. The British are flattering you with conquest, and exciting your apprehensions respecting religious liberty. They deceive you in both; they can neither conquer this country, nor will you be molested in the exercise of your religious sentiments. It is true, they may spread desolation and distress over many parts of the country; but, when the inhabitants exert their force, the enemy must flee before them. There is but one way to put a speedy issue to the extremities of war, which is for the people to be united. It is the interest of the enemy to create divisions among you, and, while they prevail, your distress will continue. Look at the horrid murders which rage among the whigs and tories. Have the enemy any friends to suffer or feel for? They have not; neither do they care how great your calamities are, if it but contributes to the gratification of their pride and ambition. You would nei-

ther have liberty nor property, could the enemy succeed in their measures. How have they deceived you in their proclamations? and how have they violated their faith with your friends in South Carolina?

They are now fleeing before us, and must soon be expelled from our borders, if the people will continue to aid the operations of the army.

Having given you this information, I have only to remark, that I shall be exceedingly obliged to you, to contribute all in your power to relieve the unfortunate wounded at Guilford, and Dr. Wallace is directed to point out the things most wanted, and to receive and apply donations, and from the liberality of your order, upon the occasion, I shall be able to judge of your feelings, as men, and principles, as a society.

Given at head-quarters, North Carolina, March 26, 1781, and the fifth year of American independence.



*To major-general Nathaniel Greene.*

*Friend Greene,*

**W**E received thine, being dated March 26, 1781: agreeable to thy request we shall do all that lies in our power; although this may inform, that from our present situation, we are ill able to assist, as much as we would be glad to; as the Americans have lain much upon us, and of late the British have plundered and entirely broke up many amongst us, which renders it hard; and there is at our meeting-house, in New Garden, upwards of one hundred now living, that have no means of provision, except what hospitality the neighbourhood affords them, which we look upon as a hardship upon us, if not an imposition; but, notwithstanding all this, we are determined, by the assistance of Providence, while we have any amongst us, that the distressed, both at the court-house and here, shall have put with us; as we have as yet made no distinction as to party and their cause, as we have now none to commit our cause to, but God alone, but hold it the duty of true christians at all times to assist the distressed.

*Guilford co. N. C. 3d mo. 30th. 1781.*

*Law case. In the court of errors and appeals of the state of Delaware.*

*Benjamin Robinson and William Robinson, appellants, against the lessee of John Adams, respondent.*

**A**N action of trespass of ejectment was brought by the respondent against the appellants in the common pleas of Suffex, for a tract of land situated in that county. The action was removed into the supreme court, by *certiorari*; and, upon the trial, there the jury found a special verdict.

The verdict states, "that Thomas Bagwell was seized in his demesne as of fee of a moiety of a tract of land called Long-Neck, of which the land in question is part, and by his will, dated the fifteenth day of April, 1690, devised the same in manner following: "I Thomas Bagwell, &c. for my wordly estate that the Lord hath endowed me with, do give and bequeath as followeth: *Item*, I make my dear wife the executrix—*Item*, I give to my two sons, namely, William and Francis, all my land at the Horekilm, in Suffex county, &c. to be equally divided between them, and their heirs for ever—*Item*, this plantation where I now live, &c. I give to my son John, to him, his heirs forever; that is, from a white oak by the creek side, &c. to the head line—*Item*, I give to my son Thomas, the rest of my land here, to be equally divided, and he to have share in the orchard; and likewise my part of the cedar island, I give to Thomas and John, to be equally divided between them, to them and their heirs for ever; only my two daughters, namely, Ann Bagwell and Valiance Bagwell, to have an equal share 'of the said island, so long as they keep themselves unmarried, and no longer—*Item*, I give to my son Thomas, two hundred acres of land adjoining William Burton's branch, to him and his heirs forever—*Item*, I give to my son John one negro woman—*Item*, I give to my daughters Ann and Valiance, two hundred twenty and five acres of land adjoining John Abbot, Thomas Mills, and Francis Wharton, to them and their heirs for ever. If any one of my aforesaid children should die, before they come to lawful age, their lands to go to the survivors; that is,

if Thomas should die before he comes to lawful age, I give his share of land where William now lives, to my daughter Elizabeth Tilney, to her, and the lawful begotten heirs of her body, forever; provided Thomas have heirs before he comes to lawful age, then to him, and his heirs forever; and likewise, if William should die without heirs, to go to Francis; and if Ann should die without heirs, to go to Valiance; and if John should die before he comes to lawful age, without heirs, then his share of land here, where I now live, I give to my daughter Comfort Leatherberry, to her, and her lawful begotten heirs of her body for ever. *Item*, I give to every one of my grand-children a calf, to them and their heirs for ever; to my daughters Ann and Valiance, a feather bed a piece, to them, and their heirs for ever; to my four sons, Thomas, William, Francis, and John, a gun a piece, to them, and their heirs for ever; to my son Thomas, my pistols and holsters for ever, &c. And all the rest of my personal estate I give to my wife, and my six aforesaid children, to be equally divided among them, to them, and their heirs for ever; to wit, Thomas, William, Francis, John, Ann, and Valiance. I set my boys at age at eighteen, and my girls at sixteen; and their estate to be divided presently after my decease, by my friends William Curtis, William Burton, and William Parker, which I leave overseers over my children, &c." That the testator died seized as aforesaid—that his will was duly proved the sixteenth of September, 1690—that he left issue, all his sons and daughters beforementioned—that after his death, William, his eldest son, entered into the premises, in the declaration of the plaintiff mentioned, and being thereof seized, died intestate, leaving issue William, his only son by one venter, and Agnes, his only daughter, by another venter; that the said William and Agnes, after their father's death, entered into the premises, of which he died seized, and made partition, as by the records of the orphan's court appeareth, and the lands in the declaration mentioned, were allotted to the said William, the son, who died intestate, seized thereof, leaving two daughters,

Patience and Elizabeth, and a widow, Ann—that the said Ann, as tenant in dower, and the said Patience, and Elizabeth, as heirs of the said William, entered, and were seized, &c.—that the said Patience and Elizabeth died without issue—that their mother, Ann, married Benjamin Burton, and died, leaving issue by him, two daughters, Ann, and Comfort, who entered, and were seized, &c.—that the said Ann married Thomas Robinson, and died, leaving issue, the appellants—that Comfort died without issue—that Agnes, the daughter of William Bagwell, the first, married John Adams, by whom she had issue several children, of whom John Adams, the lessor of the plaintiff, is the eldest son and heir at law—that he entered and demised, &c. upon whom the defendants entered, &c. But, whether upon the whole matter, &c. the jurors doubt, and pray the opinion of the court, &c. And if, &c. they find for the plaintiff, and assess damages, to five shillings and six-pence for costs, besides the costs expended: but if, &c. they find for the defendants.

Upon this verdict, the supreme court in April, 1787, gave judgment for the plaintiff, from which judgment the defendants appealed. An *habere facias possessionem* was awarded to issue, for delivering possession to the plaintiff, upon security tendered, &c.

It is stated by the counsel on both sides, that the only question in this cause is, whether William Bagwell, the son of Thomas Bagwell, took under his father's will, an estate in fee simple, or an estate in fee tail. If he took an estate in fee simple, then by our intestate acts, that estate is vested in the appellants. If he took an estate in fee tail, the land in question descended to the lessor of the plaintiff, now respondent, the heir in tail.

It is time that this controversy should be finally decided, or large as the contested property is, it may prove ruinous to all persons concerned. We are informed that several suits have been brought for this estate—verdicts given against one another—and contradictory opinions of very eminent lawyers in several parts of America, obtained. The present action has continued above fifteen years.

It is contended by the counsel for

the appellants, that William Bagwell, the devisee, took an estate in fee simple, subject to an executory devise, to Francis Bagwell, contingent on William's dying under age, and without issue.

Their argument opened with an observation, that “estates in fee tail are no favourites of the law, and particularly ought not to be so under republican forms of government, so that if there be any doubt in this case, the determination should incline rather towards the appellants, than the respondent.”

Estates in fee tail are not liable to division by will, or upon intestacy, as estates in fee simple are: and these distributions are very beneficial. \* It is much to be wished, that every citizen could possess a freehold, though some of them might happen to be small. Such a disposition of property cherishes domestic happiness, endears a country to its inhabitants, and promotes the general welfare. But, whatever influence such reflexions might have upon us, on other occasions, they can have little, if any, on the present, for reasons that will hereafter appear.

“The intention of testators,” say the counsel for the appellants, “ought

NOTE.

\* It is greatly to be desired, that the persons appointed by our courts, for viewing and dividing lands among the children of intestates, would not suffer themselves so easily to be prevailed upon to report, that the lands will not bear a division. Thus, very often an estate is adjudged, as incapable of division, to one of the children, that might well be divided into five or six, if not more, farms, as large as many in the eastern states, upon which the industrious and prudent owners live very happily. By the usual way of proceeding among us, one of the children is involved in a heavy debt, that frequently proves ruinous to him: or, if the debt of valuation is paid to the other children, it is in a number of such trifling sums, and at such distances of time, one from another, that they are of very little use to those who receive them. This matter deserves very serious consideration.

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to prevail in the construction of wills—that these are presumed to be made in extreme weakness, and without good advice—that therefore great indulgence has been shewn to improprieties of expression—and judges have frequently added, subtracted, changed and transposed words—that according to this rule, these words in the will—“and likewise, if William should die without heirs, to go to Francis,” should be read thus—“and likewise if William should die *before he comes to lawful age* without heirs of *his body*, *his estate* to go to Francis”—that this alteration is agreeable to the meaning of the testator, because, after having just before mentioned his children, and William amongst them, he says—“if any one of my *aforsaid* children should die *before they come to lawful age*, their lands to go to the survivors”—and then immediately proceeds, binding this part and the following into one sentence, by these strongly connecting explanatory words—“that is, if Thomas should die before he comes to lawful age, I give his share of land where William now lives, to my daughter Elizabeth Tilney, to her and the lawful begotten heirs of her body forever; provided Thomas have heirs before he comes to lawful age, then to him and his heirs forever; *and likewise*, if William Bagwell should die without heirs, to go to Francis,” &c.—that this construction is consistent with the design of the testator, expressed in the foregoing part of his will, where he gives William an estate in fee simple—that this estate, being given to the testator's immediate heir at law, ought not to be diminished by the following words, unless they necessarily require it so to be—that they do not thus require it to be diminished—that all the different parts of the will are reconcileable—that there was a fee simple given to William, with an executory devise over to Francis, upon the contingency of William's dying before he came to lawful age, and without heirs of his body—that the contingency never happened; but William died seized of the fee simple.”

Many authorities have been read, and ably applied in support of these principles.

By the counsel for the respondent it is urged, that the construction contended for, on the other side, is arbitrary and inadmissible—that there is plainly an estate in fee tail given to William Bagwell, because, it is impossible, as was conceded by the counsel for the appellants, that he could die “without heirs,” as long as his brother Francis, to whom the limitation over is made, was living; and therefore, that limitation demonstrates, that by the words “without heirs,” was meant “without heirs of *his body*”—that there is no necessity for overthrowing the fee tail thus evidently limited—that the words “if any one of my *aforsaid* children should die before they come to lawful age,” &c. were proper, if only some of them were under age—that there is reason to believe, from the facts stated, of William's being the eldest son, and of his living by himself; and more especially from the words made use of in the limitation over upon his death, in which there is no mention of his “dying before lawful age,” that he was of age at the making of the will—that this construction is confirmed by the limitations over upon the deaths of Thomas and John, which are expressly made to depend not only upon their “dying without heirs,” as with respect to William, but also upon their “dying before they come to lawful age”—that these words are omitted again in the limitation over upon the death of Ann, and in all probability for the same reason—that the testator has, in this manner, repeatedly varied his language in conformity to his own views—that these views, thus declared, ought not to be controuled by implications, and disappointed by additions, subtractions, changes, or transpositions, supposed to be more agreeable to his mind—that this would be to make wills, not to interpret them—that the construction, in favour of the respondent, is more easy and natural than that in favour of the appellants, and is much recommended, by not offering such violence to the expressions of the testator.”

The counsel for the respondent have insisted on this construction with a great force of argument, drawn from reason and authorities. We have,

therefore, thought fit to employ a considerable time in our deliberations upon this cause.

[*To be continued.*]



*An account of communications and donations, made to the American philosophical society, at Philadelphia, since the publication of their second volume of transactions.*

June 16, 1786. **A** Letter from messrs. Christopher jun. and Charles Marshall, with specimens of sal glauberii, and sal ammoniac, made at their laboratory in Philadelphia.

These salts are equal in quality, if not superior, to any imported, and are sold at a lower rate.

Aug. 18. A letter from mr. Charles W. Peale, with a drawing and description of a fan-chair, invented, and made for him, by mr. Cram, an ingenious mechanic of Philadelphia. Presented by dr. Benjamin Rush.

A letter, with a drawing and description of a tide-mill, on somewhat of a new construction, by mr. Robert Leslie, now of Philadelphia. Presented by Francis Hopkinson, esq.

Nov. 3. A letter from a society, lately instituted at Cape Francois, under the name of Du cercle Philadelphes; with sundry publications by the same society. Presented by dr. Benjamin Rush.

A model and description of a machine for clearing wells, &c. of pernicious damps or fixed air: by mr. Ebenezer Robinson of Philadelphia; with a satisfactory account of its success. Presented by dr. S. Duffield.

Nov. 17. A letter from mr. John Jones, of Sussex county (Delaware) accompanying the model of a bridge, on an improved plan. Presented by David Rittenhouse, esq.

Dec. 1. Part of an exceedingly large tooth, of some unknown species of animal. It was lately found at Tioga, on the banks of the Susquehannah, and is entirely different from the large teeth frequently found on the Ohio. Presented by David Rittenhouse, esq.

Dec. 15. An anonymous paper on the subject of stove-rooms and green-houses; particularly recommending

the use of a basin of water, on the heated stove, in order to mollify the air in the stove-room, and render it more salubrious. Presented by Samuel Vaughan, esq.

Jan. 19, 1787. An elegant copy of the medical commentaries in ten volumes, published by dr. Andrew Duncan, of Edinburgh, and sent over by him, as a donation to the society. Presented by the rev. dr. Ewing.

Feb. 16. A letter from David Rittenhouse, esq. containing a number of new and curious observations, on the generation of clouds. Directed to, and presented by Francis Hopkinson, esq.

A paper from mr. John Churchman, of Nottingham (Maryland) containing a new theory of the variation of the magnetic needle, founded on the hypothesis of two bodies (besides the moon) revolving round the earth, in small circles parallel to the equator; one near the north pole, and the other near the south pole; and that the needle, being wholly governed by the attraction of these magnetic satellites, will, in whatever part of the world, always rest in the plane of a circle, passing through them and the given place.

April 6. A letter from mr. Deneufville, giving an account of a glass house, for the manufactory of white-glass, erected by him near Albany, with a specimen of the glass. Presented by mr. John Vaughan.

May 18. An elegant copy of a treatise, entitled, "A defence of the constitutions of the government of the united states." Written by his excellency John Adams, and by him presented to the society, through the hands of the president, dr. Franklin.

A letter from the rev. Thomas Barnes, and dr. Thomas Henry, secretaries of the Manchester society, with two volumes of their transactions.

Two letters from mr. John Whitehurst, of London, with the second edition of his "enquiry into the original state and formation of the earth."

A volume of tracts, mathematical and philosophical, by mr. Charles Hutton, of London.

A letter from mr. Herschel, of Bath, with a catalogue of one thou-

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land nebulæ, or clusters of fixed stars—all presented by dr. Franklin.

A letter from Francis Hopkinson, esq. directed to dr. Franklin, with a drawing and description of a chrenometer, or time-piece, on a very simple construction.

A paper, containing a drawing and description of a nautilus, or ferry-boat, in which it is proposed, that one man shall work a number of oars or paddles, by the assistance of the lever; by mr. Eneas Lamont, of Baltimore.

June 15. A letter from the rev. Temple Henry Croker, of the island of St. Christopher; containing a number of experiments and observations on magnetism, particularly the dipping needle, tending to prove, that the magnetic influence acts in a horizontal direction; and therefore cannot be owing (according to dr. Halley's hypothesis) to a central loadstone. Presented by dr. Franklin.

July 13. A letter from Henry Laurens, esq. of South Carolina; with a donation to the society of fifty pounds sterling, towards the completion of their hall. Presented by Samuel Vaughan, esq.

A donation of ten guineas, for the same purpose, from mr. William Vaughan, of London; presented by his brother, mr. John Vaughan.

Sept. 18. A letter from mr. Patrick Wilson, professor of astronomy in the college of Glasgow, containing a general description of mr. Herschel's forty feet telescope, lately mounted, with an account of two satellites, which he has thereby discovered, revolving round the georgium sidus. Communicated to, and presented by dr. Franklin.

A letter from L. S. of New Jersey, giving an account of a chimney, built some years ago, and plastered on the inside with mortar, in which a quantity of salt had been mixed. This chimney, he observes, though never swept, was not in the least danger of taking fire; as the moisture attracted by the plaster, during the night, especially in a damp state of the atmosphere, occasioned the soot to scale off and fall down. Presented by dr. Franklin.

Sept. 21. A dissertation, containing a number of ingenious experi-

ments and observations on evaporation in cold air; by dr. Casper Wistar, of Philadelphia. Communicated to, and presented by dr. Franklin.

Description of a spring-block, designed to assist vessels in sailing; by a candidate for Magellan's prize medal. The motto—"Vires acquirit eundo."

A paper, "entitled, the discovery of the means of finding the longitude:" by another candidate for the prize medal. The motto—"Measure a thing without an end."

Oct. 5. A paper, in French, giving a particular account of a remarkable distemper, which raged among cattle in the southern parts of Montargis, during the year 1784. By M. Gassillier.

A paper from Timothy Matlack, esq. and dr. Wistar, of Philadelphia; giving an account and description of part of a thigh-bone, of some unknown species of animal, of enormous size; lately found near Woodbury-creek, in Gloucester county, New Jersey. By a comparison of measures, it appears, that the animal, to which this bone belonged, must have exceeded in size the largest of those whose bones have been found on the Ohio, of which we have any account, in the proportion of about ten to seven; and must have been nearly double the ordinary size of the elephant.

A letter from mr. Robert Patterson, of Philadelphia; containing an explanation, on the principles of hydrostatics, of that curious phenomenon first observed by dr. Franklin, viz. that when a glass tumbler, about two thirds filled with equal parts of water and oil, is moved gently, backwards and forwards; or made to swing at the end of a chord, like the pendulum of a clock, the surface of the water, in contact with the oil floating upon it, will be thrown into a violent, wave-like commotion; while the upper surface of the oil will remain comparatively placid and even. The doctor, in relating this experiment, which he does not himself explain, observes, "that having shewn it to a number of ingenious persons, those who are but slightly acquainted with the principles of hydrostatics, &c. are apt to fancy immediately, that they understand it, and readily attempt to explain it; but that their

explanations have been different, and to him not very intelligible. That others, more deeply skilled in those principles, seem to wonder at it, and promise to consider it." Presented by Dr. RUSH (To be continued.)



To his excellency the president, and the honourable the senate and house of representatives of the united states.

*The memorial and petition of the public creditors who are citizens of the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, by their committee, duly authorized and instructed.*

Most respectfully shew,

**T**HAT your memorialists, influenced by a faithful and uniform attachment to the happiness and glory of their country, behold, with peculiar satisfaction, the establishment of a government which is expressly constituted to promote and perpetuate union, order, and justice, the great sources of national prosperity. And, when they consider the characters that are appointed to organize and administer this system, they embrace the most flattering hope, that, in its execution, will be found an ample performance of the auspicious promises, which are contained in its principles. From this anticipation, indeed, your memorialists, whose services and sufferings in the public cause, cannot require a particular attestation, have derived that consolation, which the imbecility of the former union, and the political vicissitudes of their own immediate state, would not permit them to indulge.

In the hour of extreme necessity, when complicated want enfeebled, and impending ruin agitated, their country, your memorialists avow an honourable pride, in the remembrance of the exertions by which they then essentially contributed to her protection and safety. At the same time that they partook of the toils and dangers of active life, and suffered in the ruinous depreciation of the paper currency, at least in common with their fellow-citizens; the wealth which had been transmitted to them by their ancestors, or accumulated by their industry—the fund which prudence had hoarded to administer comfort to old

age—and the supply which humanity had provided for the helpless infant, or the solitary widow, they advanced with a liberal and patriotic hand to relieve the exigencies of the union. The public faith was pledged, by every solemnity of assurance—the honour of the states was bound, by every tie of gratitude, to compensate so memorable a sacrifice of private interest and personal immunity. Yet your memorialists, calling your attention to a melancholy retrospect, might remind you of the ineffectual, though virtuous, efforts of the late congress to discharge the national engagements—might describe the apparent disregard of the states, for their confederated sovereignty, though recently purchased through a long and bloody conflict; and, in the language of calamity and complaint, might deplore the disappointment, the poverty, the wretchedness, and the anguish which afflicted the first and firmest patriots of the union; excluding them from a participation in the triumphs of independence, and embittering their love of liberty, with a painful sense of the injuries which they sustained. Such reflexions, however, your memorialists cheerfully dismiss, in the contemplation of that compact, which, providing for the dignity and honour of the union, has made the payment of the public debt a fundamental principle of the government, and, having imposed the obligation, has also created an adequate power to discharge it.

But your memorialists now humbly confess, that they have waited, in anxious suspense, for some evidence of the disposition of congress, upon this interesting subject. They admit the general importance of the arrangements which have occupied the attention of the federal legislature; and they particularly rejoice in the foundations that have been laid, for the production of an efficient revenue. These, however, are but preliminary steps to the attainment of the principal object of the new system; and, should congress adjourn, without any more decisive act, for the restoration of public credit, the mere institution of offices, or the regulation of imposts, will hardly protect the American character from the derision of its enemies, or the reproaches of those,

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who have hitherto thought that the want of power was its only imperfection.

Your memorialists, with the utmost deference, beg leave to represent, that public credit is the vital spark of modern policy; for the history of the world demonstrates, that, whatever may be the extent of territory, the degree of population, or the fertility of soil, unless the faith of national engagements is placed upon a basis inviolable and immutable, the advantages of nature will be lost in the uncertainty of their enjoyment; and government will afford no encouragement to industry, or protection to virtue; but, while it oppresses with its power, must corrupt by its example. The domestic experience of America renders it unnecessary, indeed, to explore the annals of ancient or cotemporary nations, in order to collect this salutary lesson; and there is only wanting, an exercise of that wisdom, which it inculcates, to convert her calamity into a blessing, and make the remembrance of what has been lost, the instrument of securing what may yet be acquired. The decay of public credit, engendering licentiousness and anarchy, has once threatened the perversion of all that was noble in her exertions, and the waste of all that was valuable in her success. To avert a similar danger, the most unequivocal demonstration of an intention to restore the faith and purity of her name, is naturally expected, from the guardians of the public interest and honour. And your memorialists now fervently pray them to consider, that procrastination, in a business of so delicate a nature, may be as fatal, as a defect of power, or a want of disposition to be just.

In the resources of the union, your memorialists discover an ample fund, and in the conduct of their fellow-citizens, they perceive a fair and honourable desire to discharge the engagements which were incurred in the common cause. The only task, therefore, that seems to be imposed upon the present government, is to adopt that mode, which shall be best calculated to promote the public welfare, at the same time that it does justice to the individuals who are interested. Immediately to pay off the

public debt, principal and interest, if not impracticable, would be greatly inconvenient, and is certainly unnecessary; for the example of those nations, who enjoy the highest commercial reputation, has evinced, that a permanent appropriation for the punctual payment of the interest, will enable the public creditor to enjoy, by the facility of a transfer, all the advantages of the principal, without injuring the credit of the country, or straining her resources.

Your memorialists, in addition to these observations, beg leave respectfully to suggest, that it has been the deliberate opinion of some of the most enlightened statesmen, that a certain amount of funded debt (and surely the debt of the united states would not be deemed too great) is a national benefit. The creation of a new species of money by this means, naturally increases the circulation of cash, and extensively promotes every kind of useful undertaking and enterprise, in agriculture, commerce, and mechanics. On this ground, alone, therefore, the advantages of a funding system would be sufficient to justify its establishment; but there are other arguments, arising from the political situation of America, which ought to render it particularly an object of favour and attention. It has been well maintained, that, after the revolution in England, a funding system was there encouraged, as the best means of attaching the great and powerful body of stockholders to the government. The policy, which prevailed in that case, is infinitely more forcible, when applied to the case of the united states—for, the credit of the union being perfectly established, every citizen, who was not originally, will be desirous of becoming, a proprietor in the public funds. Those individuals, who may hitherto have been inimical to the principles of the revolution, or averse to the adoption of the subsisting constitution, will be irresistibly invited to partake of the benefits, and consequently to promote the prosperity of the confederation—each state will find an interest in the welfare and punctuality of the rest—the federal government will be zealously supported, as a general guarantee; and, in short, a debt

originating in the patriotism that achieved the independence, may thus be converted into a cement, that shall strengthen and perpetuate the union of America.

Your memorialists conceive, that it would be superfluous to prosecute a detail of the immediate or collateral benefits, which a funding system would produce, whether by stimulating domestic industry, or attracting foreign capitals to the aid of the husbandmen, merchants, and artists of America. It is enough, in this respect, to urge, that justice, humanity, and policy, require the earliest consideration of the claim, which is now respectfully submitted. Nor can it be incumbent on your memorialists to obviate the suggestions of that pernicious policy, which aims at once to plunder them of their only hope, and to undermine the foundations of an infant government, even before the structure is complete. Let it not be recorded in the history of the revolution, that, while the monarchy of Britain generously cherished and indemnified every friend to prerogative and usurpation, a triumphant republic suffered the prompt and zealous supporters of the standard of liberty, to languish in a sad and necessitous obscurity, to lament over those vouchers of property and services, that tend at once, to remind them of the equality which they formerly maintained among their fellow-citizens—to mark their present lowliness and penury—and to stigmatize the wanton ingratitude of their country.

When, indeed, it is considered, that many of the members of your honourable body have also been affected by the destructive operations and expedients of the late war—and that all are in the actual enjoyment of that sovereignty, which has been principally purchased by the personal exertions and voluntary aids of such as are denominated public creditors—it would be unjust to the feeling, integrity, and gratitude of those, whom they now address, were your memorialists for a moment to admit a supposition, that a solemn appeal, thus brought before you, in the name of so numerous a class of meritorious citizens, could be neglected or forgotten.

By the glorious remembrance therefore, of the past—by the rich prospect

of the future—by the obligations, which the representatives of the public owe to the surviving orphans and widows of those, who have bravely fought the battles of the union, or nobly supplied its wants, in the times of peril and distress—and by the regard which is due to the peace and happiness of posterity—your petitioners implore your immediate aid and interposition, rejoicing that their humble solicitation for justice and humanity, necessarily includes a prayer for the revival of public credit, and the advancement of the national honour.

*Mathew Clarkson, Joseph Ball,  
Charles Petit, Samuel Miles,  
Thomas L. Moore, Peter Wikoff,  
Chr. Marshall, jun. John Chaloner,  
Robert Smith, Thomas M'Kean,  
James Milligan, John Nixon,  
Jon. D. Sergeant, Walter Stewart,  
Richard Fullerton, B. M'Clenachan.*

*Philadelphia, August 21, 1789.*

#### *To the PRESIDENT of the united states.*

*The address of the ministers and elders of the German reformed congregations in the united states, at their general meeting, held at Philadelphia, on the 10th day of June, 1789.*

**W**HILST the infinite goodness of almighty God, in his gracious Providence over the people of the united states of America, calls for our sincerest and most cordial gratitude to Him that ruleth supremely, and ordereth all things in heaven and on earth, in unerring wisdom and righteousness; the happy, the peaceable establishment of the new government, over which you so deservedly preside, cannot fail, but inspire our souls with new and the most lively emotions of adoration, praise, and thanksgiving unto his holy name.

As it is our most firm purpose to support in our persons, a government founded in justice and equity, so it shall be our constant duty to impress the minds of the people, entrusted to our care, with a due sense of the necessity of uniting reverence to such a government, and obedience to its laws, with the duties and exercises of religion. Thus we hope, by the blessing of God, to be in some mea-

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sure instrumental in alleviating the burden of that weighty and important charge, to which you have been called by the unanimous voice of your fellow-citizens, and which your love to your country has constrained you to take upon you.

Deeply possessed of a sense of the goodness of God, in the appointment of your person to the highest station in the national government, we shall continue, in our public worship, and all our devotions before the throne of grace, to pray, that it may please God to bless you in your person, your family, and your government, with all temporal and spiritual blessings, in Christ Jesus.

Signed by order of the meeting,

W. HENDEL, p. t. præses.

F. DELLIKER, p. t. scriba.

ANSWER.

Gentlemen,

I AM happy in concurring with you in the sentiments of gratitude and piety towards almighty God, which are expressed with such fervency of devotion in your address; and in believing that I shall always find in you, and the German reformed congregations in the united States, a conduct correspondent to such worthy and pious expressions.

At the same time I return you my thanks for the manifestation of your firm purpose, to support in your persons, a government founded in justice and equity; and, for the promise, that it will be your constant study to impress the minds of the people, entrusted to your care, with a due sense of the necessity of uniting reverence to such a government, and obedience to its laws, with the duties and exercises of religion. Be assured, gentlemen, it is, by such conduct, very much in the power of the virtuous members of the community, to alleviate the burden of the important office which I have accepted, and to give me occasion to rejoice in this world, for having followed therein the dictates of my conscience.

Be pleased also to accept my acknowledgments for the interest you so kindly take in the prosperity of my person, family, and administration. May your devotions before the throne

of grace be prevalent in calling down the blessings of heaven upon yourselves and your country.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.



Mr. CAREY,

THE following interesting letters from Sir Charles Beevor, deserve to be preserved as standing monuments of the connexion between humanity and public happiness. They prove the following particulars, relative to the new system of punishments:

1. That labour is one of the first and best means of reforming criminals.

2. That this labour is most effectual, when it is assisted by solitude. The following lines of Shakespeare, may be applied to every man, who is made the prisoner of his own reflections.

"Consideration like an angel came,  
"And whipt th' offending Adam  
"out of him."

3. These letters prove that the new system of punishments has a greater effect in deterring from crimes, than the old mode of public punishments.

4. They prove, further, that the houses, appropriated for the purpose of reforming criminals, yield a profit to the state.

And, lastly, they demonstrate, that the reformation, produced in the criminals by means of labour and solitude, was sincere and durable, except in one instance.

By giving these letters a place in your useful Museum, you will oblige many of your

READERS.

May 28, 1789.

*An account of the origin, progress, and regulations, with a description of the newly-established Bridewell, or Penitentiary-House at Wymondham, in Norfolk. By Sir Thomas Beevor, bart. addressed to the secretary of the Bath society.*

SIR,

ONE avocation in which I have lately been engaged, I will relate to you. Having read Mr. Howard's book, describing the state and condition of our prisons, it naturally led my thoughts to that subject. The idea, that as many prisoners died yearly in England by the jail-distem-

*per, as by all the executions put together; and the accounts of the dissoluteness and profligacy, which, by the intermixture of them, were learnt and practised in those places of confinement, determined me to attempt, at least, a reformation of those crying evils, in this county.*

Happily my wishes met the ideas of the other gentlemen acting in the commission of the peace here; and to their great honour, by their unanimous concurrence and assistance, I have been able to get erected a new Bridewell and Penitentiary-house at Wymondham, built upon such a plan, as enables the governor to keep the sexes and degrees of offenders entirely separate from each other, and under such regulations and discipline, as promise, with God's blessing, to work a thorough reformation in their manners, whereby they may, and many probably will, again become useful members of society. The house is constructed agreeably to the directions of the late act of parliament, and so contrived, that there are separate cells for each prisoner, airy, neat, and healthy; in which they sleep, and, when necessary, work the whole day alone. This solitude is found to affect the most unfeeling and hardened among them, beyond fetters or stripes; and is that part of their punishment, from which reformation is chiefly expected. Their cells are all arched, so that no fire can reach beyond the cell in which it begins. The rules and orders for the government of the house, were, at the desire of the justices at their quarter sessions, drawn up from, and according to, the directions of the said act, by myself, and have met with their approbation.

Lord Loughborough, who came this circuit at our last assizes, expressed himself so well pleased with the plan and regulations, that he told me he would send thither every convict sentenced to confinement, and accordingly sent six from the assizes. As this attention to the lives and morals of those unhappy members of society should be extended, I will, by the first opportunity, if you desire it, send you a copy of the rules and orders of the house, together with the returns constantly made by the governor to each quarter sessions, by which you will see

effected, what Mr. Howard despaired of, viz. "that the prisoners' earnings in the house have uniformly exceeded the sum expended for their maintenance." I wish and hope this example may excite a like attention in other counties.

I am, &c.

THOMAS BEEVOR.

*Hethel-Hall, Norfolk,*

*Dec. 21, 1784.*

LETTER II.

*Hethel, Jan. 20, 1785.*

SIR,

I Herewith transmit you a copy of the rules, orders, and regulations, to be observed and enforced at the house of correction at Wymondham; and which are also now extended to the other houses of correction in this county. If they appear severe, let it be understood, they are the severities of the legislature, not of the compiler. The first seven rules are inserted verbatim from the schedule, to the act of the 22d of his present majesty. The rest are either included in the body of the same act, or required by the act of the 19th, called, The Penitentiary Act. But I will make no apology for them; nor can I, with any propriety, deem them too harsh, since they have met with the entire approbation of the gentlemen of this county, as well as that of the judges of the assize, who have perused them.

Prisons, surely, should be places of real punishment, and even carry terror in their name. I am certain they ought not to afford either indulgencies or amusements, to the persons consigned to them. However, I must observe, that persons committed for small offences, or on light suspicion, are under less restraint. They are allowed to work in some sort of society, two, three, or four together; and if the house be full, they sometimes lodge two in a cell, and are never fettered. All the prisoners, when sick, are attended by a surgeon or apothecary, with as much assiduity and tenderness, as the greatest humanity can require.

I have sent you, likewise, a table of the prisoners' fare or diet in the house; by which you will see that, although not pampered, they are wholesomely fed. Experience justifi-

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fies me in saying this; for except such as were diseased, when they entered the house, I have not known one prisoner who has been sick in it for these twelve months past. Included is also the form of a return made by the keeper of the house, to every quarter sessions of the peace, whereby the state of the prison is constantly known to the justices, and all abuses obviated, or speedily remedied.

I am. &c.

THOMAS BEEVOR.

*Rules, orders, and regulations, to be observed and enforced at the houses of correction, in the county of Norfolk.*

I. That the several persons, committed to the houses of correction, to be kept to hard labour, shall be employed (unless prevented by ill health) every day (except Sundays, Christmas-day, and good-Friday) for so many hours as the day-light in the different seasons of the year will admit, not exceeding twelve hours; being allowed to rest half an hour at breakfast, an hour at dinner, and half an hour at supper; and that the intervals shall be noticed by the ringing of a bell.

II. That the governor of each house of correction shall adapt the various employment directed by the justices, at their quarter sessions, to each person, in such manner, as shall be best suited to his or her strength and ability, regard being had to age and sex.

III. That the males and females shall be employed, and shall eat, and be lodged, in separate apartments, and shall have no intercourse or communication with each other.

IV. That every person, so committed, shall be sustained with bread, and any coarse but wholesome food, and water; but persons under the care of the physician, surgeon, or apothecary, shall have such food and liquors, as he shall direct.

V. That the governor, and such other persons, (if any) employed by the justices to assist the governor, shall be very watchful and attentive, in seeing that the persons so committed, are constantly employed during the hours of work; and if any person shall be found remiss or negligent, in performing what is required to be

done by such person, to the best of his or her power and ability, or shall wilfully waste, spoil, or damage the goods committed to his or her care, the governor shall punish every such person, in the manner hereafter directed.

VI. That if any person, so committed, shall refuse to obey the orders given by the governor, or shall be guilty of profane cursing or swearing, or of any indecent behaviour or expression, or of any assault, quarrel, or abusive words, to or with any other person, he or she shall be punished for the same, in the manner hereafter directed.

VII. That the governor shall have power to punish the several offenders, for the offences herein before described, by closer confinement, and shall enter in a book (to be kept by him for the inspection of the justices, at the quarter sessions, and the visiting justice or justices) the name of every person who shall be so punished, expressing the offence, and the duration of the punishment inflicted.

VIII. That the governor shall prevent all communication between the persons committed upon charges of felony, or convicted of theft or larceny, and the other prisoners.

IX. That the governor shall employ in some work or labour (which is not severe) all such prisoners as are kept and maintained by the county, though by the warrant of commitment, such prisoner was not ordered to be kept to hard labour; and he shall keep a separate account of the work done by prisoners of this description, and shall pay half of the net profits to them, on their discharge, and not before.

X. That the governor, nor any one under him, shall sell any thing used in the house, nor have any benefit or advantage whatsoever, directly or indirectly, from the sale of any thing, under the penalty of ten pounds, and dismissal from his employment; neither shall he suffer any wine, ale, spiritous, or other liquors, to be brought into the house, unless for a medical purpose, by a written order from the surgeon or apothecary, usually attending there.

XI. That clean straw to lodge upon, shall be allowed to each prisoner

weekly or oftener if necessary; and that the prisoners shall be obliged to sweep out and clean their rooms every day, and the dirt and dust be conveyed out of the prison daily.

XII. That no person, without permission of a visiting justice, shall go into the lodging-rooms, or see or converse with any prisoner committed upon a charge of felony, or convicted of a theft or larceny; and all the prisoners shall, every night in the year, be locked up, and all lights extinguished, at or before the hour of nine; and shall, during rest, be kept entirely separate, if rooms sufficient can be found for that purpose, and, during their labour, as much separate as their employment will admit of.

XIII. That the governor may put handcuffs or fetters upon any prisoner who is refractory, or shews a disposition to break out of prison; but he shall give notice thereof to one of the visiting justices, within forty-eight hours after the prisoner shall be so fettered, and shall not continue such fettering longer than six days, without an order in writing, from one of the visiting justices.

XIV. That every prisoner be obliged to wash his face and hands once, at least, every day, before his bread be given to him.

XV. That each prisoner be allowed a clean shirt once in a week.

XVI. That the three prohibitory clauses of the 24th, George II. chap. 40, be painted on a board, and hung up in some conspicuous part of the prison, together with a printed copy of these rules, orders, and regulations.

(To be continued.)

*Letter from an Indian chief to his friend in the state of New York.*

Dear sir,

**Y**OUR letter came safe to hand. To give you entire satisfaction, I must, I perceive, enter into the discussion of a subject, on which I have often thought. My thoughts were my own, and being so different from the ideas entertained among your people, I should have certainly carried them with me to the grave, had I not received your obliging favour. You ask me, then, whether, in my opinion,

civilization is favourable to human happiness? In answer to the question, it may be observed, that there are degrees of civilization from Canibals to the most polite European nations; the question is not, whether a degree of refinement is not conducive to happiness, but, whether you, or the natives of this land, have obtained the happy medium? On this subject, we are at present, I presume, of very different opinions; you will, however, allow me in some respects to have had the advantage of you in forming my judgment. I was, sir, born of Indian parents, and lived, while a child, among those you are pleased to call savages; I was afterwards sent to live among the white people, and educated at one of your schools; since which period, I have been honoured, much beyond my deserts, by an acquaintance with a number of principal characters both in Europe and America. After all this experience, and after every exertion to divest myself of prejudice, I am obliged to give my opinion in favour of my own people. I will now, as well as I am able, collect together and set before you, some of the reasons that have influenced my sentiments on the subject before us.

In the governments you call civilized, the happiness of the people is constantly sacrificed to the splendor of empire; hence your code of civil and criminal laws have had their origin; and hence your dungeons and prisons. I will not enlarge on an idea so singular in civilized life, and perhaps disagreeable to you; and will only observe, that among us, we have no law but that written on the heart of every rational creature by the immediate finger of the great Spirit of the universe himself. We have no prisons—we have no pompous parade of courts; and yet judges are as highly esteemed among us, as they are among you, and their decisions as highly revered; property, to say the least, is as well guarded, and crimes are as impartially punished. We have among us no splendid villains, above the controul of that law, which influences our decisions; in a word, we have no robbery under the colour of law—daring wickedness here is never suffered to triumph over helpless innocence—the estates of widows and orphans are ne-

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ver devoured by enterprising sharpers. Our sachems, and our warriors, eat their own bread, and not the bread of wretchedness. No person, among us, desires any other reward for performing a brave and worthy action, than the consciousness of serving his nation. Our wise men are called fathers—they are truly deserving the character; they are always accessible—I will not say to the meanest of our people—for we have none mean, but such as render themselves so by their vices.

Civilization creates a thousand imaginary wants, that continually distress the human mind. I remember to have read, while at one of your schools, the saying of a philosopher to this purport, "the real wants of human nature are very few;" on this maxim our people practise, without ever having learned to read. We do not hunger and thirst after those superfluities of life, that are the ruin of thousands of families among you. Our ornaments, in general, are simple, and easily obtained. Envy and covetousness, those worms that destroy the fair flower of human happiness, are unknown in this climate.

The palaces and prisons among you, form a most dreadful contrast. Go to the former places, and you will see, perhaps, a deformed piece of earth swelled with pride, and assuming airs, that become none but the Spirit above. Go to one of your prisons—here description utterly fails!—certainly the sight of an Indian torture, is not half so painful to a well informed mind. Kill them, if you please—kill them, too, by torture; but let the torture last no longer than a day. Let it be, too, of such a nature, as has no tendency to unman the human mind. Give them an opportunity, by their fortitude in death, of entitling themselves to the sympathy of the human race, instead of exciting in them the mortifying reflexion of being enveloped in the gulph of eternal infamy. Those you call savages, relent—the most furious of our tormentors exhausts his rage in a few hours, and dispatches the unhappy victim with a sudden stroke.

But for what are many of your prisoners confined? For debt! Astonishing! and will you ever again call

the Indian nations cruel?—Liberty, to a rational creature, as much exceeds property, as the light of the sun does that of the most twinkling star: but you put them on a level, to the everlasting disgrace of civilization. Let me ask, is there any crime in being in debt? While I lived among the white people, I knew many of the most amiable characters contrast debts, and I dare say with the best intentions. Both parties at the time of the contract, expected to find their advantage. The debtor, I suppose, by a train of unavoidable misfortunes, fails. Here is no crime, nor even a fault; and yet your laws put it in the power of that creditor, to throw the debtor into jail, and confine him there for life: a punishment infinitely worse than death to a brave man. And I seriously declare, that I had rather die by the most severe tortures ever inflicted by any savage nation on the continent, than languish in one of your prisons for a single year. Great Maker of the world! and do you call yourselves christians? I have read your bible formerly, and should have thought it divine, if the practice of the most zealous professor had corresponded with his professions. Does then the religion of him whom you call your Saviour, inspire this conduct, and lead to this practice? Surely no. It was a sentence that once struck my mind with some force, that "a bruised reed he never broke." Cease then, while these practices continue among you, to call yourselves christians, lest you publish to the world your hypocrisy. Cease to call other nations savage, while you are tenfold more the children of cruelty, than they."



*On the impracticability of a passage into the Pacific ocean, round the north-west part of America.*

BESIDES those voyages, which satisfy us that we must not look for a passage on this side the latitude of 67 degrees north, we are indebted to the Hudson's Bay company for a journey by land, which throws much additional light on this matter, by affording what may be called demonstration, how much farther north, at least in some parts of their voyage, ships must go, before they can pass

from one side of America to the other.

The northern Indians, who come down to the company's factories to trade, had brought to the knowledge of our people, a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of the Copper-mine River. The company directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their service, to proceed over land, under the convoy of those Indians, for that river, which he had orders to survey, if possible, quite down to its exit into the sea; to make observations for fixing the latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings, both of it, and the countries through which he should pass.

Accordingly, Mr. Hearne set out from Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill River, in lat. 58. 47½ N. longitude, 94. 7. W. on the 7th of December, 1770; and all his proceedings are regularly recorded in a well-written journal, the publication of which would be a very acceptable present to the world, if he could be prevailed on to give it; as it draws a plain, artless picture of the savage modes of life, the scanty means of subsistence, and indeed the singular wretchedness, in every respect, of the various tribes, who, without fixed habitations, pass their miserable lives in roving over the dreary deserts and frozen lakes of the immense tract of continent through which Mr. Hearne passed, and which he may be said to have added to the geography of the globe\*.

## NOTE.

\* As a proof of the inconceivable wretchedness and misery to which the people are subject, we shall give the two following extracts from Mr. Hearne's journal: one of which is inserted in Cook's last voyage.

"We arrived at the Copper-mine River, on the 13th of July, and, as I found afterwards, about forty miles from its exit into the sea. On our arrival at the river, the Indians dispatched three men before, as spies, to see if any Esquimaux Indians were about the river; and on the 15th of the same month, as I was continuing my survey towards the mouth of the river, I met the spies, who informed

In the month of June 1771, being then at a place, called by the natives, *Conge-catha-wah-chaga*, he found his latitude, by two observations, to be 68. 47. N. and his longitude by account, 24. 1. W. of Churchill River. They left this place on the 2d, and travelling still to the westward of north, on the 13th they reached Copper-mine River, and Mr. Hearne was greatly surprised to find it differ so essentially from the descriptions which had been given of it by the natives, at the Fort. For, instead of being navigable by ships, as they reported, it was scarcely navigable, in that part, by an Indian canoe, having three falls in sight at one time, and being choked up with falls and stony ridges, which reached almost quite across it.

Here Mr. Hearne began his survey of the river, and continued it quite to its mouth, near which it was that the Indians committed the horrible massacre recorded in the note. He found the river all the way, even to its exit into the sea, encumbered with shoals and falls, and emptying itself into it over a dry flat of the shore, the tide being then out, which seemed, by the edges of the ice, to rise about twelve or fourteen feet. This rise, on account of the falls, will carry it but a very small way into the river's mouth, so that the water in it had not the least brackish taste. Mr. Hearne is nevertheless sure of the place, it emptied itself into, being the sea, or a branch of it, by the quantity of whale-bone and seal-skins, which the Esquimaux had at their tents, and also by

## NOTE.

me there were five tents of Esquimaux on the west side of the river; and by their accounts of the distance, I judged they were about twelve miles off. On receiving this news, no attention was paid to my survey, but their whole thought was engaged on planning the best method of stealing on them the ensuing night, and killing them while asleep. The better to complete their design, it was necessary to cross the river, and, by the account of the spies, no place was so proper for the purpose, as where we were, it being fine and smooth, and at some distance from any cataract. Accordingly, after they had put their guns, targets,

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the number of seals which he saw upon the ice. The sea, at the river's mouth, was full of islands and shoals, as far as he could see by the assistance of a pocket telescope; and the ice was not yet (July 17th) broken up, but thawed away only for about three quarters of a mile from the shore, and for a little way round the islands and shoals, which lay off the river's mouth. But he had the most extensive view of the sea, when he was

about eight miles up the river, from which station, the extreme parts of it bore N. W. by W. and N. E.

By the time Mr. Hearne had finished his survey of the river, which was about one o'clock in the morning of the eighteenth, there came on a very thick fog and drizzling, and as he had found the river and sea in every respect unlikely to be of any utility, he thought it unnecessary to wait for fair weather, to determine

## NOTE.

spears, &c. in order, we were ferried over the river, the doing of which, (as we had only three canoes) took up a considerable time. It must be observed, that before we set out on the west side, all the men painted their targets, some with the image of the sun, others with the moon, others with different kinds of birds and beasts of prey, and some had the images of fairies, and other imaginary beings on them, which, according to their silly imaginations, are the inhabitants of the different elements, as the earth, sea, air, &c. By a strict enquiry into the reason of this superstition, I found that each man had the image of that being on his target, which he relied most on for success, in the intended battle with the Esquimaux: and some were contented with a single representation, whilst others, doubtful, I suppose, of the power of any single being, would have their targets covered to the very margin, with hieroglyphics, quite unintelligible.

"This piece of superstition being completed, we began to advance towards the tents of the Esquimaux, always walking in low grounds, and being very careful how we crossed any hills, for fear of being seen by the inhabitants. The number of my gang being so far superior to the five tents of Esquimaux, and the warlike manner in which they were equipped, in proportion to what might be expected of the poor Esquimaux, rendered a total massacre inevitable, unless kind Providence should work a miracle for their preservation. The land was so situated, that we walked under cover of the hills till we came within two hundred yards of their tents, where the Indians that were with me lay some time in ambush,

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## NOTE.

watching the motions of the Esquimaux; for we were in full sight of their tents. The Indians advised me to stay there till the fight was over, with which I could by no means comply, for I thought, when the Esquimaux were surprised, they would fly every way for refuge, and, if they found me alone, not knowing me from an enemy, they would lay violent hands on me, when there were none to assist. I therefore determined to accompany them, assuring them at the same time that I would have no hand in the murder, unless I found it necessary for my own safety. They seemed highly pleased at my proposal, and directly fixed a spear and bayonet for me, but I had no target. By the time this was all settled, it was near one o'clock in the morning, when, finding all the Esquimaux asleep in their tents, they ran on them without being discovered, until they came close to their very doors—they then began the cruel massacre, while I stood neuter in the rear, and, in a few seconds, a scene truly shocking presented itself to my view. For as the poor unhappy victims were surprised in the midst of their sleep, they had neither power nor time to make any resistance, but men, women, and children, ran out of their tents, quite naked. But, alas! where could they fly for shelter? They, every soul, fell a sacrifice to Indian barbarity; in all, near thirty. The shrieks and groans of the poor expiring souls were horrible, and this was much increased by the sight of one poor girl (about eighteen years old) whom they killed so near to me, that when the first spear was struck into her, she fell down and twisted about my feet and legs, and it was with much difficulty I disengaged

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the latitude more exactly by observation; but by the extraordinary care he took in observing the courses and distances, as he walked from Congecatha-wha-chaga, where he had two very good observations, he thinks the latitude may be depended on, within 20m. at the utmost. It appears from the map, which Mr. Hearne constructed, of this singular journey, that the mouth of the Copper-mine

River lies in latitude, 72 N. and longitude, 119 W. of Greenwich.

Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper-mine River to Churchill, lasted till June 30, 1772, so that he was absent almost a year and seven months. The unparalleled hardships he suffered, and the essential service he performed, have met with a suitable reward from his masters. He has been several years governor of Prince

## NOTE.

myself from her dying grasp. As the Indians pursued her, I solicited for her life, but so far was it from being granted, that I was not fully assured of my own being in entire safety for offering to speak in her behalf. When I begged her life, the two fellows that followed her, made no reply, till they had both their spears through her, fixed into the ground: they then both looked me sternly in the face, and began to upbraid me, by asking me if I wanted an Esquimaux wife? at the same time paying no regard to the shrieks of the poor girl, who was twining round the spears like an eel. Indeed I was obliged at last to desire that they would be more expeditious in dispatching her out of her misery, lest otherwise I should be obliged, out of pity, to assist in performing that friendly office.

The brutal manner in which they used the bodies which they had deprived of life, is too shocking, and would be too indecent to describe, and the terror of mind I was in, from such a situation, is so much easier to be conceived than described, that I shall not attempt it. When they had completed this most inhuman murder, we observed seven more tents on the opposite side of the river—It must here be observed, that when the spies were on the look out, they could not see the seven tents just under them, on account of the bank hanging too much over; and only saw the five tents that were on the other side of the river, which in that part is not above eighty yards across. The inhabitants of these other tents were soon in great confusion, but did not offer to make their escape. The Indians fired many shot at them across the river, but the poor Esquimaux were so unacquainted with the nature of guns, that when the bul-

## NOTE.

lets struck the rocks they ran in great bodies to see what was sent them, and seemed curious in examining the pieces of lead which they found flatted on the rocks, till at last one man was shot through the leg, after which they embarked in their canoes, with their wives and children, and paddled to a shoal in the river.

When my Indians had made all their observations on the bodies, as beforementioned, and had plundered their tents of all their copper work, (which they and the Copper Indians used instead of iron) they assembled at the top of a high hill, standing in a circle, with their spears erect in the air, and gave shouts of victory, calling *Tima! Tima!* by way of derision to the surviving Esquimaux who were standing on the shoal. We then went up the river about half a mile, to the place where our canoes and baggage were, with an intent to cross over, and plunder the other seven tents. It taking up a considerable time to get all across the river, as we had only three canoes, and being entirely under cover of the rock, the poor Esquimaux, whom we left on the shoal, thought we were gone about our own business, and had returned to their own tents again: and the land was so situated on the east side, that the Indians went under cover of the hills, until they were within one hundred yards of their tents, where they saw the Esquimaux busy in tying up their bundles. They ran on them again with great fury, but having their canoes ready, they all embarked, and reached the shoals beforementioned, except one poor old man, who, being too attentive in tying up his things, had not time to reach his canoe, and so fell a sacrifice to Indian fury. After the Indians had plundered these

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of Wales Fort, where he was taken prisoner by the French, in 1782, and last summer returned to his station.

The consequences resulting from this extensive discovery, are obvious. We now see that the continent of North America stretches from Hudson's Bay to far to the north-west, that Mr. Hearne travelled near one thousand three hundred miles before he arrived at the sea, and that the whole of

his track, to the northward of 61 deg. north latitude, lay near six hundred miles due west of the western coast of Hudson's Bay, at the same time that his Indian guides were well aware of a vast tract of land stretching farther in the same direction. How futile now appear the arguments of those, who, about forty years ago, flattered to much for a north-west passage thro' Hudson's Bay?

## NOTE.

tents of what they thought worth their notice, they threw their tent-poles into the river, broke their stone kettles, and did all they could to distress the poor survivors. We found an aged woman, at a small distance, up the river, snaring of salmon, whom they butchered in the same manner, every man having a thrust at her with his spear."

The other extract is as follows:

"This day, January 11th, 1779, as the Indians were hunting, some of them saw a strange snow-shoe track, which they followed, and, at a considerable distance, came to a little hut, where they found a young woman sitting alone. They brought her to the tents; and, on examining her, they found she was one of the western dog-ribbed Indians, and had been taken prisoner by the Arathapescow Indians in the summer of 1770, and when the Indians, who took her prisoner, were near this place in 1771, she eloped from them, with an intent to return to her own country. But it being so far off, and when she was taken prisoner having come all the way in canoes, with the winding of rivers and lakes, she had forgot the way, and had been in this little hut ever since the beginning of fall. By her account of the moons past since her elopement, it appears to have been the middle of last July, when she left the Arathapescow Indians, and she had not seen a human face since. She had supported herself by snaring rabbits, partridges, and squirrels, and was now in good health, and I think, as fine a woman of a real Indian, as I have seen in any part of North America. She had nothing to make snares of but the sinews of the rabbits legs and feet, which she twisted together for that purpose, and of

## NOTE.

the rabbits skins had made a neat and warm winter's clothing. The flock of materials she took with her, when she eloped, consisted of about five inches of an iron hoop for a knife; a stone steel, and other hard stones for flints, together with other fire tackle, as tinder, &c. about an inch and a half of the shank of the fletching of an arrow, of iron, of which she made an awl. She had not been long at the tents, before half a score of men wrestled to see who should have her for a wife. She says, that when the Arathapescow Indians took her prisoner, they stole upon the tents in the night, when all the inhabitants were asleep, and murdered every soul except herself and three other young women. Her father, mother, and husband, were in the same tent with her, and they were all killed. Her child, of about five months old, she took with her, wrapt in a bundle of her own clothing, undiscovered, in the night. But when she arrived at the place where the Arathapescows had left their wives, which was not far off, it being then day-break, these Indian women began immediately to examine her bundle, and having there found the child, took it from her, and killed it immediately. The relation of this shocking scene only served the savages of my gang for laughter. Her country is so far to the westward, that she says she never saw any iron or other metal till she was taken prisoner, those of her tribe, making their hatchets and chisels of deer's horns, and knives of bone and bone; their arrows are shod with a kind of flint, bone, and deer's horns, and their instruments to make their wood work, are nothing but beavers' teeth. They have frequently heard of the useful materials that the nations, to the east

*Correspondence between Noah Webster, esq. and the rev. Ezra Stiles, D. D. president of Yale college, respecting the fortifications in the western country.—P. 141.*

## LETTER III.

*From Noah Webster, esq. to the rev. Ezra Stiles, D. D.*

*Reverend Sir,*

**I**N my letter of the 15th ult. I gave a particular account of the travels of Ferdinand de Soto into Florida, with the course of his marches, and his winter quarters. From the facts there stated, it appears probable that he threw up many of the breast works or forts, which are still to be traced in the Carolinas and Georgia, on the Ohio and Mississippi. Nor have I a doubt that those old forts, discovered by Mr. Carver, may be ascribed to the same expedition: as it is evident, Ferdinand was north of the Missouri, and remained forty days at Pacaha, which was probably on the Mississippi, or the river St. Pierre. Still it remains questionable, whether all the forts discovered in these western regions can be rationally ascribed to Ferdinand. To this opinion, the extent of the works at Muskingum is a forcible objection. I rely on Captain Heart's description of these works, published in the *Columbian Magazine* for May 1787; for it is taken from actual mensuration. By this description, it appears that there are two forts nearly in the same form, at a distance from each other, but the area of one is much larger than the other. The largest is called, for distinction's sake, the town, which is surrounded with a line of walls of earth from six to ten feet high, and from twenty to forty feet thick; and this line of walls is about a quarter of a mile square. From an opening on the west side, there is a covered way one hundred and twenty feet wide, and

leading one hundred and twenty yards to the low grounds. This way is guarded on each side with wall, raised nearly to a plane with the walls of the town, and consequently thirty feet high at their termination in the low grounds. At the north west corner of the town, there is an oblong mount, seventy-four by forty four yards square, and six feet high. Near the south wall is another mount, fifty by forty yards, besides others of less consideration in other quarters of the fort. The other fort is about half the size of the foregoing, with openings in the center of the opposite walls, and at the angles, some of which are guarded by circular mounts, ten feet high.

At a small distance from the latter fort, is a pyramid, or circular mount, a little oval, fifty feet high, three hundred and ninety in circumference, surrounded with a ditch, five feet deep and fifteen feet wide; a parapet outward, seven hundred and fifty-nine feet in circumference, with an opening in the parapet, towards the fort. Between the town and fortification are several large caves, mounts, graves, &c.

These are the outlines of Mr. Heart's description. Now the question arises, could these extensive works be raised by Ferdinand's army, which consisted of little more than twelve hundred men; and that in the short space of four months? If Ferdinand was at Muskingum at all, it was the second winter after his landing; and he was in quarters but little more than four months, viz. from the 18. of December to the 25. of April; or could such fortifications be necessary to secure his troops and horses? If not, we know of no motive which could induce him to bestow so much labour on his camp. These considerations make it very problematical, whether these works are to be ascribed to the Spaniards.

To assist in resolving this question, it must be mentioned, that Ferdinand had frequently several hundred Indians in his service. The Cassique of Ocute furnished him with four hundred of his subjects. Great numbers were furnished by other Cassiques, who were upon good terms with Ferdinand, as he marched through their districts; and others, who felt some re-

## NOTE.

of them are supplied with by the English, but, instead of drawing nearer, to be in the way of trading for iron work, &c. are obliged to remove further back, to avoid the Arathapscow Indians, as they make surprising slaughter among them every year, both winter and summer.

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lulance in carrying the baggage for the Spaniards, were compelled to do it. Besides these attendants, Ferdinand, whenever he was opposed by arms, defeated the Indians, and took a number of prisoners, whom he retained as slaves. What number he had in his service at Chicaca, the supposed Muskingum, is not mentioned; but, on his arrival, it is expressly said, he sent for the Cassique in a friendly manner, who came, and made him presents of mantles and skins. From these facts and circumstances, it appears that Ferdinand was in a country well peopled by Indians, which made it necessary for him to secure his troops from a sudden attack in their quarters, and he doubtless availed himself of their friendship on his first arrival, to procure their assistance in fortifying his camp. He might have five hundred or a thousand Indians to employ with his own troops in constructing these works.

The division of his camp into two forts, may be easily accounted for, by considering he had several hundred horses, and a vast number of swine, to secure from the Indians, who soon had a taste of swine's flesh, and began to steal the pigs. One fort was probably reserved for these. Yet even these circumstances will hardly obviate the objection. It is almost incredible that so small a number of men should erect such vast fortifications, or that so much art and design should be necessary in guarding a temporary camp. That the natives of this country did sometimes throw up breast works of earth, is a fact. Mr. Smith, in his history of New Jersey, page 136, observes, "that different nations, were frequently at war with each other, of which husbandmen sometimes find remaining marks in their fields. A little below the falls of Delaware, on the Jersey side, and at Point-no-point in Pennsylvania, and several other places, were banks, that were formerly thrown up for intrenchments against incursions of the neighbouring Indians, who, in canoes, used sometimes to go in warlike bodies, from one province to another." Such remains are discovered in every part of America; but in none of them do we find such traces of immense labour, and proficiency in the

art of fortification, as in the works of Muskingum. Ferdinand frequently found tribes of Indians, fortified against his approaches; but he describes their works as mere lines of palisadoes; never once mentioning a wall of earth or stone, or an intrenchment. It is certain, however, that Ferdinand always, when it was practicable, chose for his camp an Indian settlement; for his troops depended for subsistence on their stores of maize and beans. He might find such a settlement on the banks of the Muskingum, surrounded with some kind of rude wall, which he might improve into a regular fortification. That he was in a populous country, is certain; and why might not the natives fortify on the Muskingum, as well as on the Delaware?

But how shall we account for the mounds, caves, graves, &c. and for the contents, which evince the existence of the custom of burning the dead, or their bones? can these be ascribed to the Spaniards? I presume, sir, you will be of opinion they cannot. Mr. Heart says these graves are small mounds of earth, from some of which human bones have been taken; in one were found bones in the natural position of a man, buried nearly east and west, and a quantity of singlass on his breast; in the other graves, the bones were irregular, some calcined by fire, others burnt only to a certain degree, so as to render them more durable; in others the mouldered bones retain their shape, without any substance; others are partly rotten, and partly the remains of decayed bones; in most of the graves were found stones, evidently burnt, pieces of charcoal, Indian arrows, and pieces of earthen ware, which appeared to be a composition of shells and cement.

That these mounds and graves are the works of the native Indians, is very evident; for such small mounds are scattered over every part of North America. "It was customary with the Indians of the West Jersey," says Mr. Smith, page 137, "when they buried the dead, to put family utensils, bows and arrows, and sometimes wampum into the grave, as tokens of their affection. When a person of note died far from the place of his

own residence, they would carry his bones to be buried there. They washed and perfumed the dead, painted the face, and followed singly; left the dead in a fitting posture: and covered the grave pyramidically. They were very curious in preserving and repairing the graves of their dead, and pensively visited them."

It is said by the English, who are best acquainted with the manners of the natives, that they had a custom of collecting, at certain stated periods, all the bones of their deceased friends, and burying them in some common grave. Over these cemeteries, or general repositories of the dead, were erected those vast heaps of earth, or mounds, similar to those which are called in England barrows, and which are discovered in every part of the united States.

The Indians seem to have had two methods of burying the dead: one was, to deposit one body (or, at most, but a small number of bodies) in a place, and cover it with stones, thrown together in a careless manner. The pile, thus formed, would naturally be nearly circular; but those piles, that are discovered, are something oval. About seven miles from Hartford, on the public road to Farmington, there is one of those Carnedds, or heaps of stones. I often passed by it, in the early part of my youth, but never measured its circumference, or examined its contents. My present opinion is, that its circumference is about twenty-five feet. The inhabitants, in the neighbourhood, report, as a tradition received from the natives, that an Indian was buried there, and that it is the custom, for every Indian that passes by, to cast a stone upon the heap. This custom I have never seen practised; but have no doubt of its existence; as it is confirmed by the general testimony of the first American settlers\*.

*New York, January 20, 1788.*

*(To be continued.)*

#### NOTE.

\* The existence of a custom of paying respect to these Indian heaps, as they are called, is proved by a ludicrous practice, that prevails among the Anglo-Americans in the vicinity, of making strangers pull off their hats,

*Method of preparing a liquor, that will penetrate into marble; so that a picture, drawn on its surface, will appear also in its inmost parts.*

**T**AKE of aqua-fortis and aqua-regia, two ounces of each; of sal-ammoniac one ounce; of the best spirit of wine, two drachms; as much gold as may be had for four shillings and six-pence; of pure silver, two drachms. These materials being provided, let the silver, when calcined, be put into a vial; and having poured upon it the two ounces of aqua-fortis, let it evaporate, and you will have a water yielding first a blue, and afterwards a black colour: likewise, put the gold, when calcined, into a vial, and having poured the aqua-regia on it, set it by to evaporate; then pour the spirit of wine upon the sal-ammoniac, leaving it also to evaporate; and you will have a gold-coloured water, which will afford divers colours. And after this manner you may extract many tinctures of colours out of other metals: this done, you may, by means of these two waters, paint what picture you please upon white marble, of the softer kind, renewing the figure every day for some time, with some fresh superadded liquor; and you will find that the picture has penetrated the whole solidity of the stone, so that cutting it into as many parts as you will, it will always represent to you the same figure on both sides.

#### NOTE.

as they pass by this grave. A man passing by with one who is a stranger to the custom, never fails to practise a jest upon him, by telling him that a spider, a caterpillar, or some other insect, is upon his hat; the unsuspecting traveller immediately takes off his hat, to brush away the offending insect, and finds, by a roar of laughter, that a trick is put upon him. I have often seen this trick played upon strangers, and upon the neighbours who happen to be off their guard, to the great amusement of the country people. The jest, however, is a proof that the aborigines paid a respect to these rude monuments, and, in ridicule of that respect, probably, originated the vulgar practice of the English, which exists to this day.

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Mr. Bird, a stone-cutter at Oxford, practised this art before the year 1660; several pieces of marble so stained by him, are to be seen in Oxford; several others being shown to K. Charles II. soon after the restoration, they were broken in his presence, and found to correspond through the whole substance.

*Remarks on the amendments to the federal constitution, proposed by the conventions of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Virginia, South and North Carolina, with the minorities of Pennsylvania and Maryland, by the rev. Nicholas Collin, L. L. D.*

NUMBER IX.

THE deep silence of the federal constitution on matters of religion, is blamed by some religious persons; yet the two minorities of Pennsylvania and Maryland, with the convention of New Hampshire, are dissatisfied because express stipulations are not made for liberty of conscience; and request the following amendments. "The rights of conscience shall be held inviolable, and neither the legislative, executive, nor judicial powers of the united states, shall have authority to alter, abrogate, or infringe any part of the constitutions of the several states, which provide for the preservation of liberty in matters of religion\*." "That no person, conscientiously scrupulous of bearing arms in any case, shall be compelled personally to serve as a soldier. That there be no national religion established by law; but that all persons be equally entitled to protection in their religious liberty†." "Congress shall make no laws touching religion, or to infringe the rights of conscience‡."

It would be very unjust and pernicious to establish any religious system in the united states; but it is needless to guard against such a visionary evil. Congress cannot, by any construction, claim such a power; nor will they

NOTES.

\* 1st. prop. of the min. of Penns.

† 11th and 12th am. by the min. of Mar.

‡ 11th. am. by the conv. of N. H.

have any inclination for it. But if, by a very wonderful chance, a majority of congress were so bigotted, their project would not have the least probability of success, while the several great denominations are a check upon each other, and while sound philosophy makes a rapid progress in the train of civilization. Besides, the people of America will hardly submit to the payment of necessary taxes; is it then likely they would pay tithes to the clergy?

Partiality to any sect, or ill treatment of any, is neither in the least warranted by the constitution, nor compatible with the general spirit of toleration; an equal security of civil and religious rights, is therefore given to all denominations, without any formal stipulations; which, indeed, might suggest an idea, that such an equality was doubtful. If the constitution must at all have any amendment on this subject, it should be to guarantee to every state in the union, perfect liberty of conscience; because it is much more probable that superstition, mingled with political faction, might corrupt a single state, than that bigotry should infect a majority of the states in congress.

At the same time, rights of conscience should be properly understood. Religion, as such, is a transaction between man and his Maker, and is above the cognizance of any human tribunal; however unreasonable, or even profane it may appear, God alone is the judge. But when any person claims, from a religious principle, the right of injuring his fellow-citizens, or the community at large, he must be restrained, and, in atrocious cases, punished. If he is a fool, or a madman, he must not be a tyrant. It is impossible that God could order him to be unjust, because he commands us all to be just and good. Fanatic devotees murdered Henry IV. of France, William I. prince of Orange, and other benefactors of mankind; superstition has destroyed many hundred thousands of mankind, and, in different periods, laid waste the four quarters of the globe.

A wise government will, therefore, keep a watchful eye on any form of superstition, which is baneful to mo-

ality, and full of danger to society; if not checked in time, it may soon spread like a plague, distress individuals, and even embarrass the government. False religions had never been established in the world, if legislators had seen their fatal tendency, and nipt them in the bud. We happily live in a civilized æra: but the human heart, is very wandering, and the fancy of mortals very whimsical. Whenever a religion, morally and politically bad, attacks the united states, it should, as a general evil, be restrained by the federal government. Suppose, that some bold and artful prophet, should pretend to have a commission from heaven to erect an earthly dominion, and inspire a multitude of his votaries with a blind intrepid enthusiasm; such a gentleman must not, from his tender conscience, cut our throats and plunder our property. Again, if great numbers, from a mistaken devotion, should renounce civil and political duties, and, merely by compulsion, contribute to the support and preservation of the society, half a million of such christians would be a very heavy clog on the arms of active citizens. The moral virtues are more necessary for the peace of this country, than any other, because the people are extremely free; consequently, rational religion is of the highest importance, as in many respects the security and perfection of virtue. The foundation of both should be laid in a good education. This ought to be a great object in the government of every state, and with the federal government, in the territory belonging to the united states, for which\* it is to make all needful rules and regulations. Schools ought to be formed with the gradual settlement of this country, and provided with sensible teachers, who shall instruct their pupils in those capital principles of religion, which are generally received, such as the being and attributes of God, his rewards and judgments, a future state, &c.

There is not the least danger of the federal government compelling persons of a scrupulous conscience to bear arms, as the united states would be

poorly defended by such; besides, troops can, if necessary, be hired for their money,

The convention of South Carolina would amend the 3d. sect. of the 6th. article by inserting the word "other" between the words "no" and "religious." This section, after requiring from all concerned, an oath or affirmation to support the constitution, adds, "but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the united states. If this amendment points out a mere inaccuracy of stile, it is so far proper—an oath or affirmation being a religious test; if it means to guard against religious establishments, it is, by what has been said, superfluous.



*Letter respecting the state of American manufactures, &c. from a gentleman in Philadelphia, to his friend at Montego-Bay.*

Philadelphia, May 8, 1789.

Dear sir,

THE alteration that I found on my arrival here, after an absence of two years, exceeds credibility. I will endeavour to amuse you with some account of the progress and present state of manufactures in this country. I am, no doubt, not acquainted with all; but I shall give you those that have made the greatest noise.

At the federal procession in Philadelphia, there appeared 600 shoemakers, belonging to that city and its environs. If you have not read the account of that procession, you must refer to Carey's Museum†. By the custom-house books of Philadelphia, they exported 7000l. worth of tanned leather, the manufacture of the country, to Virginia. This last year, mr. Cabot, of Beverly, in Massachusetts, purchased and exported to the southern states, 70,000 pair of women's shoes, from that place.

The manufacturing society published a premium for the best American printed book: several were presented in competition for the premium, which was given to the publisher of a German book; and, in the course of

#### NOTE.

\* ad. par. 2d. sect. 4th. art.

#### NOTE.

† See vol. 4, page 57.

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inquiry, it was found, not only that the types, paper, and leather were all made in America, but also the materials for making the types, and all the instruments used in the printing business; this far exceeded every hope, even as to the manufacture of the materials, which is extremely laborious and difficult. The same society have found that upwards of 60 paper mills exist in Pennsylvania, so as almost to preclude the importation of paper.

At Albany, they have established a glass manufactory, and at Boston is established another\*. The Albany glass is as cheap as that from Europe.

In New York, the castor-nut, or palma-christi, grows well; and one or more mills are established, for the making of castor oil.

In the course of three years, the nail manufactory has been pushed with so much spirit and success, that importation of nails no longer answers.

Coarse linens are so universally made in various parts of New England, as to undersell those of the same quality from Europe, which can no longer be sent to any of the places north of Philadelphia: of the southward I know nothing, but that they raise much cotton in Virginia and Maryland.

Duck is made in a number of farmers' families, through Connecticut particularly, and other parts of New-England. It is expected that they will shortly make sufficient for the consumption of the country. In Boston, a company have built a house 180 feet long, and two stories high, for the manufacture of this article. More hands offer, than can be employed in this manufactory, and this without any injury to other objects, as I understand it is carried on in the winter only. I hear that a man in Connecticut works his spinning and winding wheels by water, and is now building a weaving-mill, to be turned by the same.

#### NOTE.

\* A third, not inferior to any on the continent, is established in Frederick county, Maryland, and most extensively prosecuted by John Frederic Amelung, esquire, a very worthy and ingenious German.

VOL. VI. No. III.

The cotton manufactory is established at Philadelphia and Beverly, and will be at Lancaster, or York, in Pennsylvania. The Boston assembly have granted 500l. to the one at Beverly, as a gratuity for the advancement it has made. It is carried on with Arkwright's machines.

At Hartford, they make excellent second cloths, particularly of the pepper and salt colour. The French minister, Mr. Jay, Baron Steuben, Mr. Wadsworth, and a great number of the principal gentlemen are setting the fashion of wearing them. Baron Steuben has invented a button out of the conch-shell, the same that wampum is made of, to wear with them.

They breed the silk-worm in Connecticut. These work silk in the summer, and the egg is kept all winter. They have for many years bred the silk-worm, and made silk in Connecticut, and now in such quantity, that some is exported to the neighbouring states. A lady of my acquaintance here has a gown and petticoat now making of it; and her husband, who had left off wearing silk stockings, from patriotic motives, is again adopting them.

The quantity of beer and porter made here, has more than doubled within a year, and has turned many farmers to the cultivation of barley. The brewers are, indeed, at present circumscribed in their manufacture, by the want of barley, which has occasioned an importation from Great-Britain.

Carding-machines are made as cheap and as well at Philadelphia, as in Europe.

The importation of steel has been considerably lessened at the port of Philadelphia, within these two years, by the making of it in the country; it is said the importation is lessened one-fourth.

Fifty-thousand barrels of salted beef were made last year in Connecticut and other parts of New England; some of which they have exported to the East and West Indies; and they can undersell the Irish in their own markets.

One Rumsey has invented a steam-engine that can be worked cheaper, and with greater effect than Watt and Bolton's; he is gone to England to H h

get a patent: he has had one in many states here already.

The Virginia, or Patowmac canal, is nearly finished; boats already go down the greater part of the navigation, and carry goods at one-fifth of the price that waggons do.

The builders of the Boston bridge are gone to Europe, and, have built one, if not more, on the same plan, in Ireland; the wood was all carried from Massachusetts: the Boston bridge stands, and gives at least 25, perhaps 40, per cent. interest.

My budget is now out, not for want of materials, but for want of knowing them; but I can add, that the manufactory society at Philadelphia are of great service in calling forth talents, in making known the state of manufactures in the country, and encouraging all. There is a spirit of emulation, of industry, of improvement, and of patriotism, raised throughout the states, in this and other branches, of the necessities of a nation, that bids fair, not only to make them independent of other nations, but, in many points, even in manufactures, their rivals. In no period have they made a more rapid progress, than within this year or two; and at no period, have they seemed to be so likely to make a rapid one as in the present. Every nerve and sinew seems to be at its utmost stretch, and this not by the interpolation of the legislature; but by the patriotic or interested and enterprising spirit of individuals; perhaps, even by the want of an effective government, I might almost have added: for it might have meddled, and, as in most similar cases, might have marred.

Manufactures are not the only line in which they have exerted themselves with success. Agriculture and commerce have gone on, perhaps with equal rapidity, if I was sufficiently informed on those subjects. Some facts I do know, however, that make it at least probable. Vermont has 200,000 inhabitants; Kentucky 50,000; 12,000 passed Fort Pitt, for the Ohio, last summer. Col. Morgan is commencing a settlement on the Spanish territory, opposite the mouth of the Ohio, which, no doubt, will be in time, united to this part of America. The lands near the lakes, are

settling very fast, particularly near Niagara. Kennebeck, and all the lands between that and Nova Scotia, are also settling extremely fast, and all this without any farms being deserted on the sea-coast. The cultivation of hemp is introducing all over Massachusetts, and on the low lands near Philadelphia; barley, in Rhode-Island and Jersey; tobacco, in such quantity in Kentucky, as to raise the jealousy of Virginia. Virginia can raise more wheat than any state in the union; its inhabitants say, than any two, &c. &c. In commerce, excepting the fact already mentioned, of the exportation of beer, I can only give you one fact: from Massachusetts alone, there have forty-four sail of vessels gone to the East Indies; and of these, some to Kamschatka: but, to crown the whole of this highly flattering picture to every lover of mankind, it appears, by the returns lately made to congress, that notwithstanding the ravages made in the war, in population, by the military operations on the continent, by the still greater losses at sea, and by the still greater check population must have received by the separation of so many fathers from their families, and by the discouragement of matrimony; I say, notwithstanding all these circumstances, the returns to congress prove, that the population is as great, now, as it was at the beginning of the war.

I am, sir, &c.

P. S. I must not omit, that lead and copper mines are discovered near Philadelphia, in the counties adjoining, and they are opening the last; that the Philadelphia Philosophical Society, are about to publish another volume; and that dr. Franklin has given 500l. to the Library Company. The Pennsylvania toll law is repealed, and the college put on the same footing as before the war.



*The Worcester Speculator, No. III.*

THE RE is no instance, in which the benevolence of the Deity is more apparent in the natural world, than in his accommodating the temperature and fertility of every climate to the original necessities of its inhabitants. That this peculiarly distinguishes the climates of the American

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states, must be evident to every one, who is acquainted with their situation. By the fertility and salubrious quality of the air and soil—by the no less useful than beautiful variegation of hill and dale—it seems as if nature designed that this luxuriant spot should terminate the most unbounded wishes of her civilized sons.

Having soil and climate suited to the various productions of prolific nature, it must be imputed to that roving enterprising spirit, which characterizes man, that the inhabitants of this country should engage in extensive commerce. Whenever a country has grown so populous, or the soil so barren, that agriculture cannot satisfy her needy children, then, and then only should commerce be encouraged. The reasons are obvious—the prosperity of a nation depends upon the internal peace and contentment of its inhabitants. A free intercourse with foreign nations begets dissipation, the greatest bane of a community; it introduces a different train of thought among the commonality. They soon look with contempt upon those employments, which, heretofore were the sources of subsistence and contentment. They now leave their patrimonial and household gods, the sure protectors of their happiness; and, riot for a moment, in dissipation and extravagance, dependent for the trappings of their new sphere, they alienate their patrimony, and become the ready tools of ambition and faction.

These observations very naturally arise, upon a view of the present situation of the American police, but more particularly of the state of this commonwealth\*. That our embarrassments are principally occasioned by the neglect of agriculture, and an application to an ill-judged commerce, is a truth, which may easily be demonstrated. For many years, while commerce was prohibited, the Americans made great proficiency in agriculture and manufactures. While industry walked hand in hand with public virtue, our demands, though many, were readily answered. Peace found our finances low, and our ma-

nufactures imperfect—a taste for high life and extravagance soon universally prevailed. The populace fondly imagined, that independence would prove a Midas, and render unnecessary every future exertion. The doctrine, so flattering to indolence, that commodities could be purchased much cheaper than they could be manufactured, was universally believed. The farmer, who had considered himself as the most important character in the commonwealth, now looked upon his farm as an unnecessary incumbrance. He allowed his sons to take, as they imagined, a more expeditious and less laborious method of acquiring respect and opulence. His daughters, who, heretofore, had ornamented themselves with the modest work of their own hands, now abandon their half-spun webs. The rich dairy is borne away to purchase gewgaws for their empty heads. The income of his estate, with which he was wont to pay his honest debts, becomes now too scanty to discharge his proportion of the public tax. At length he is obliged to mortgage his estate, and becomes a noisy advocate for paper money, and a levelling act.

A landed interest, divided through a whole community, while it discards luxury, by encouraging industry, preserves that equality among the inhabitants, which is the only foundation of a lasting republic. Whatever, therefore, tends to lessen an equality of landed possessions, is repugnant to good policy in a free government. That unrestricted commerce will have this effect, is a truth too obvious to need demonstration. If similar causes will produce similar effects, we may read our destiny in the termination of the Spartan republic. For more than 500 years, while commerce was restricted, the Spartans flourished, and were renowned for the exercise of every public and private virtue: but when this restriction was taken off, in the days of Lyfander, luxury, with its concomitant train of vices, poured in, like a torrent, and wholly deluged and destroyed that commonwealth.

Should another Lycurgus arise to regulate our commerce, and encourage agriculture and manufactures, we may yet be drawn back to some point of excellence—but should we

## NOTE.

\* Massachusetts.

proceed in our present mistaken policy, our destruction is as inevitable, as the decrees of Heaven.

September, 1787.



*Directions for the improvement of the rising generation.*

IF you are a descendant of the magnates—but the very supposition proves you ignorant of the word magnates—if your father then is a great man, that is, has a coach, and three or four negro-drivers, it will be necessary for you to attend to the following directions:

As you are to inherit a large patrimony; or, to come down to your capacity, as you are to have a plantation left you—to blame your parents for not sending you to school, to learn to read and write, would be the height of cruelty. It proves you were not designed for the drudgery of business: bad writing is a mark of genteel education, I might have said a characteristic, but perhaps you would have hurt your eyes in looking for it in a dictionary.

At your first setting out in life, purchase a large library—and as you are never to spend a moment's time in it, no matter who the authors are, so they be nearly bound, gilt, and lettered.

It was formerly necessary for a young gentleman to be acquainted with the combat of the duel; but it seems, the soft, feminine, and superfluous manners of our modern men of honour, were to mitigate the rigour of that iron, and gothic custom: fire-arms, and edge-tools are incompatible with modern refinement. The soul, sunk into womanish softness, recoils at the elevation of a pistol; and (as *Virgil* says) “startles back at destruction.” But, notwithstanding the duel is totally abolished, the challenge has gained ground—some directions on this head may be necessary.

As you are never to fight, the more insolent the challenge, the better: let it be couched in the strong laconic diction—“thou villain! meet me behind,” &c. &c. &c. \* *Puley*, verbatim, as recorded in the *Maryland Gazette*, may be extracted

NOTE.

\* Two journey men barbers.

*verbatim*. Let your challenge be legible. Many, by foolishly connecting the idea of fighting, with a challenge, have most egregiously failed in this essential point—their physiognomy has been distorted—a tremor has pervaded the system—with a *conatus* to run off through the thumb and fingers, the motions of the pen become zig-zag, and the champion, for awhile, yields to the desultory movements of a *St. Anthony's dance*.

If this foolish timidity should get the better of you for a moment—rally, call up all the auxiliaries of choler, spleen, and resentment; your challenge will then be rank, “it will smell to heaven.”

Some barbarous Goth, unacquainted with the modern improvements of satisfying injured honour, at receiving or giving a challenge, may, perhaps, insist on going to the field of Mars—if so, go out; it cannot be supposed your seconds will be barbarians, for, in general, their conduct and regulations have been favourable to humanity. This ceremony over, honour and reputation are no longer in the lurch; the tumult of fear subsides, every emotion is of the generous kind, you will embrace the antagonist who has deslowered your sister, and drown rancor in the flowing bumper.

As a member of refined society, you will mingle in female company; didactic—but you know nothing of Greek—dry rules fall very short of life; as *Chesterfield* says, study the best living models. There are many exemplars of fine young fellows, whom you must imitate. The ancients had a foolish story, that *Venus* carried on an amour with *Mars*, the warrior, and was once detected with him in a dark grove; never credit such idle tales. Depend upon it, the nearer a man assimilates himself to female manners, capacity, and softness, the more acceptable; on no other principles can we account for the effeminacy, lepidity, and languid lassitude of our modern beaux.

Let your dress be strictly Anglic; the circumstances, form of government, and prosperity of your country, require the strictest imitation. It will prove, that every spark of prejudice and false patriotism was buried with the closing of your wounds.

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Your conversation in the female circle is simple, and consists of a few tender phrases easily committed to memory. The following ingenious table is taken from the memorandum book of a celebrated beau of the present age—commit it to memory.

An object of approbation is

monstrous { beatific,  
captivating,  
transporting,  
divine,  
celestial,  
angelic,  
seraphic,  
cherubic.

An object of disapprobation is

monstrous { odious,  
ugly.

Monstrous, being a good-natured kind of a disyllable, will help you out on every occasion; and monstrous pretty, and monstrous ugly, conform as strictly to logic, as grammar.

As you are a man of property, you must represent it, and get in member of assembly. To discharge this office with dignity, at particular times associate with some lawyer or doctor, no matter which, so you get their *technics*; and be careful to commit to memory the following energetic phrases. Energetic phrases are strong expressions, and without ideas, have a happy effect on your audience.

A suspension of *hepiscorpus*; vulgarly, *habeas corpus*.

Trial by jury; the palladium of rights.

Paroxysms of expiring liberty.

Patriotic phrenzy.

The unequable vibrations of a mob.

The spasmodic convulsions of expiring patriotism.

We give up art of our rights, to have the other secured.

This one sentence omitted in any political piece would be an *hiatus valde deflendus*.

Amor patriæ.

Dulce est pro patria mori.

The new constitution is defective—but do not attempt to point out the defects.—Mingle, interlard, and intersperse these at proper intervals, in your piece, and if they do not give you the name of patriot, there will be a *bathos* of unintelligibility in it, that will confound the most learned.

Singularity on any subject is a mark

of profound sense, and deep penetration: I would then recommend opposition without reserve; if it does nothing else, it will make you a dubious character, and consequently ostensible.

By the aid of your riches I have carried you to the house of assembly; let us return to domestic life. Diversions are rational, and a mark of easy fortune. It would be well then to import an European *bitch*, there is music in the very yell of an imported *puppy*; our country-dogs only bark. You must be a sportsman, there is an hilarity in the very word; the idea of its being European will amply atone for the want of game, and the impenetrableness of our forests. Attend strictly to these directions, and if you do not make a brilliant figure in the present age, there is no truth in reality.



*Reviewers' opinion of dr. Smith's essay on complexion and figure\*; with remarks on the same.*

To the PRINTER of the AMERICAN MUSEUM.

SIR,

YOU will oblige some of your readers, by inserting the opinion of the critical reviewers, of London, on dr. Smith's essay, on the causes of the variety of complexion and figure among mankind, and at the same time giving the following remarks a place in your Museum. A. B.

*Reviewers' opinion.*

AT different times, we have glanced at this subject, and have felt great embarrassment, not only from its real difficulty, but from the danger of improper and undeserved imputations. Yet we see not, that, with a liberal and candid mind, the danger can be considerable. The Copernican system has advanced in reputation, and is at last established, notwithstanding the opposition which the Mosaic history affords; and the best divines allow, that the Scriptures were certainly not designed to teach us a system of philosophy. In

#### NOTES.

\* See American Museum, p. 30, 123, 181.

† The remarks are at the end of this piece.

the population of the world, this argument has additional force. Moses relates the history of one family, and of one race, evidently with a design of establishing the genealogy of the Jews, and, eventually, that of Christ. The language there employed, 'of the whole world,' is the same with that used in other parts of Scripture, where a limited portion is only meant; and the whole race of mankind is that race which is to form the peculiarly favoured nation of God. If, indeed, this view of the question was not perfectly clear, the allusions of different parts of Scripture might be adduced. There were giants, says Moses, on the earth in those days; and another race is evidently alluded to, when he speaks of the sons of God going in to the daughters of men. If this then was the case previous to the deluge, and only hinted at incidentally, we may well suppose that it may be the case in a subsequent period, though not particularly pointed out; and if with some authors, we suppose the deluge partial, it will appear more decisive. It is enough for our purpose, however, to observe, that in examining this question, we mean not wilfully to oppose the inspired writers; but considering it as a philosophical one, we shall give the arguments which arise from a careful view of the different facts.

After this apology, we may venture to say that *dr. Smith's* essay, in which he endeavours to show that the human race sprung from one pair, is extremely vague and inaccurate; that it is far from proving the principle which he wishes to establish. It is, in other respects, exceptionable; for, to an unreasonable diffuseness, it adds no little confusion. A philosopher, in discussing this subject, would have examined the various figures and complexions of mankind. He would have distinguished what was decidedly the effects of climate and habit; for much variety is owing to these causes, from what is more permanent, and consequently ought to be the subject of his investigation. Instead of pursuing this method, he takes at one view all the varieties, and when he has proved some of these to be the effects of heat or cold, or different

customs, he thinks that he has, with equal certainty, demonstrated the rest to be of the same kind. So loose and inclusive is his reasoning, that he has never enquired what really constitutes a different species: in botany it is preserving the general and essential characters in changes of situation, and losing, in time, the accidental differences, which climate and culture have produced. In animals, where the distinction ought to have begun, it has been neglected. If the production of a fertile offspring be the criterion of the sameness of the species, men are undoubtedly the same species. But this distinction is found to be fallacious, particularly in domesticated animals; and, if carefully examined, we shall see that, in zoölogy, the species are not, in reality, ascertained with accuracy. We must then, at last, refer to the botanical distinction.

Another cause of inaccuracy, in our author, is a very indefinite use of terms. We have 'dark, swarthy, and black,' used with little discrimination. There are three colours which distinguish three different races of men: the fair sanguine European; the shining jetty Negro, and the duller copper-coloured American. To these all the varieties must be referred; and if an author can prove that climate will bring an unmixed race of Americans in Europe to a fair complexion, or in Africa to the jetty black, he will have, in one part, obtained his end. He must otherwise fail. If, indeed, he proves so much, more remains behind. The face of the African and American differ as much as their colour; and both differ from the German of Tacitus, whom we chuse as our standard of the European, because of the similarity in the respective states of civilization. He will not, even then, have finished his work. The Huns, the Tartars, and the Greeks, differ still more from each other. What climate gives the two former their peculiarity? What manners produce such a striking difference on the two latter? The Tartars, whom we have put between, by design, have inhabited climates as cold as those of the Huns, and as warm as those of the Greeks; yet they have always differed. As we

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have pointed out what doctor Smith should have done, let us now see what he has done.

In the beginning he neglects medical differences: we suppose he means anatomical ones; for he is very diffuse on the subject of the bile, which is fortunately of great service to him, because it is yellow, and because it may become black. If, however, he had proceeded to anatomical differences, he would have found the membrane immediately under the skarf skin, black in the negro; he would have found it tawny when he was just born, and daily grow blacker before the bile had any colour. He would have found it in the American, of a copper colour; and, in the European, of a reddish white. He would have found an original difference in the shape of the skull and legs; a difference in the treatment of diseases, and the effects of medicines.

He alleges, with justice, that the skin is changed, though the bile be not affected; and it is certainly true, that heat of climate blackens the hair, without affecting the constitution in general. It blackens also the complexion; agreed: but the swarthy Spaniard is as distant in colour from the Negro, though perhaps of Moorish race, as the Highlander; for a dirty brown is extremely distant from a jetty black. Our author's whole reasoning proves no more. The curly hair is a very important difference. If our author had examined it, he would have found it proceed from the tortuosity of the pores through which it proceeds. He has struggled with this difficulty as much as the hair seems to do for its growth. The Malays, in hot climates, have curly hair; and the blacks, in temperate ones, lose the distinction. This is true, in some measure; but the most curly hair of the Malay is much straighter than the longest hair of the Negro. Our readers will smile when Dr. Smith, after much labour, comes to tell us, that, in consequence of a continuation for some ages in a temperate climate, the Negro has actually had a queue from five to six inches long. The Malay, in a hotter climate than this third race of Negroes in America, have, in no instance, where it is allowed to grow, hair so short.

The effects of heat and cold, on the forms of the bodies, is explained with still less success. In the 48th degree of latitude, we are assured, that the posterity of Chinese families have become perfect Tartars. We know that, in the West India islands, the fourth race from a Negro woman is almost an European; and from the same cause. Weak must be the argument that wants such support. We cannot give a better specimen of our author's reasoning than the following.

"The principal peculiarities that may require a farther illustration are the smallness of the nose, and depression of the middle of the face; the prominence of the forehead, and the extreme weakness of the eyes.

"The middle of the face is that part which is most exposed to the cold, and consequently suffers most from its power of contraction. It first meets the wind, and is farthest removed from the seat of warmth in the head. But a circumstance of equal, or, perhaps, of greater importance on this subject, is that the inhabitants of frozen climates naturally drawing their breath more through the nose than through the mouth, thereby direct the greatest impulse of the air on that feature, and the parts adjacent. Such a continual stream of air augments the cold, and by increasing the contraction of the parts, restrains the freedom of their growth.

"Hence, likewise, will arise an easy solution of the next peculiarity, the prominence of the forehead. The superior warmth and force of life in the brain that fills the upper part of the head, will naturally increase its size, and make it overhang the contracted parts below."

Yet, on this subject, his foundation is secure, for he is only explaining the differences of, confessedly, the same race in different climates. It is, however, impossible to accumulate more false physiology, or more erroneous facts, in a similar space. If he looks at the Laplanders and the Esquimaux, the description will be found not to be just. The theory then must of course be erroneous.

Another cause of apparent change, and a very important one, if we look at its influence, is expression, in consequence of the state of society.

"Every object that impresses the senses, and every emotion that rises in the mind, affects the features of the face the index of our feelings, and contributes to form the infinitely various countenance of man. Paucity of ideas creates a vacant and unmeaning aspect. Agreeable and cultivated scenes compose the features, and render them regular and gay. Wild, and deformed, and solitary forests tend to impress on the countenance, an image of their own rudeness. Great varieties are created by diet and modes of living. The delicacies of refined life give a soft and elegant form to the features. Hard fare, and constant exposure to the injuries of the weather, render them coarse and uncouth. The infinite attentions of polished society give variety and expression to the face. The want of interesting emotions leaving its muscles lax and unexerted, they are suffered to distend themselves to a larger and grosser size, and acquire a soft unvarying swell that is not distinctly marked by any idea. A general standard of beauty has its effect in forming the human countenance and figure. Every passion and mode of thinking has its peculiar expression—And all the preceding characters have again many variations according to their degrees of strength, according to their combinations with other principles, and according to the peculiarities of constitution or of climate, that form the ground on which the different impressions are received."

This is, in general, extremely just; but expression neither flattens the nose, raises the forehead, or bends the legs: much less does it give a variety to the more internal conformations in which the Negro differs from the European. The native American approaches nearer to us than the Negro: yet let us attend to *dr. Smith* with all the impressions of a preconceived hypothesis on his mind. He is describing an Indian youth at the college.

"There is an obvious difference between him and his fellow-students in the largeness of the mouth, and thickness of the lips, in the elevation of the cheek, in the darkness of the complexion, and the contour of the face. But these differences are sen-

sibly diminishing. They seem the faster to diminish in proportion as he loses that vacancy of eye, and that lugubrious wildness of countenance peculiar to the savage state, and acquires the agreeable expression of civil life. The expression of the eye, and the softening of the features to civilized emotions and ideas, seems to have removed more than half the difference between him and us. His colour, though it is much lighter than the complexion of the native savage, as is evident from the stain of blushing, that, on a near inspection, is instantly discernible, still forms the principal distinction. There is less difference between his features and those of his fellow-students, than we often see between persons in civilized society. After a careful attention to each particular feature, and comparison of it with the correspondent feature in us, I am now able to discover but little difference. And yet there is an obvious difference in the whole countenance."

This struggle between facts and theory is violent; but let us extract, in a few words, the truth. The features remain, the difference is in expression. Let us mention another fact: where the likeness does not depend on the colour and the form of the eye, the resemblance between the features of children and their parents is most obvious when asleep; and, in some instances, it has appeared striking in the dead body, though not observable in life. There is undoubtedly a cause of general resemblance, which may be attributed to our tendency to imitation. Frequent intercourse will give a general similarity: this fact our author has made the most of; but he allows that it neither changes the shape of the nose or lips of an African; and we can allow, in turn, that it changes the expression so much, that a nose and lips, till they are examined, will almost seem changed.

The effects of civilization, and the melioration, if the word may be allowed, of the species, by introducing into the South, the fairer and more sanguine daughters of the North, our author has well explained. He has shown too, with sufficient accuracy, the effects of hard living, severe treatment, filth, and exposure to the wea-

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ther. We can only say, that these have produced little effect on his argument; for the same race, in better situations, have recovered their former distinguishing marks.

Dr. Smith afterwards traces the different objections to his system, and allows, that in the same parallels of latitude the complexion is different. If we examine the globe, we shall find a very considerable diversity in countries where the heat and the dryness are nearly the same. Let us take the 30th degree of latitude, which is within the tropic of Cancer, and passes directly through the kingdom of the Negroes. It cuts Nubia, where the inhabitants are not black; Arabia, almost in its widest part: but the Arabians are only swarthy, and, when transported to more temperate climes, are almost fair. It divides the Decan, where those best defended from the heat are only brown, and the poorer sort of a darkish hue, very different from black; passes through Siam and China; the northern part of Owhyhee; the kingdom of Mexico; and the south western end of Cuba. In this vast extent, we meet often with as great heat, nearly as much drought, but with a race of beings as dissimilar as can be supposed. In the more southern regions, we meet with greater heat and less moisture, but people differing greatly from the Negroes, whose peculiarity is attributed to these causes alone. It is contended, that in Borneo we meet with a race of Negroes. If this be true, we admit the whole system. From all we have heard, from all we have seen or read, the native inhabitants are very different. Their skin is, indeed, a shining olive; but their noses are not flat, their foreheads not raised, and their lips often thin. The Aborigines must not be confounded with the Malays on the coast, who are of a blacker hue, though far distant from the Negro race.

Dr. Smith concludes with some remarks and strictures on that part of lord Kaimes's 'Sketches of the History of Man,' where he contends that there is more than one race. The charge of infidelity is pretty liberally scattered. Lord Kaimes's religious sentiments are not now at issue, and we think too, that he has defended this argument

weakly. Our author, on the other hand, is not always candid or just in his strictures.

Dr. Smith may, in his turn, ask how many species of men there are? We dare not answer this question; for our knowledge is not yet sufficiently extensive. From the proposed expedition to explore the inland parts of Africa, an expedition formerly thought of, and almost on the point of being carried into execution, we may expect much information on this subject. At present, we can perceive only, with some clearness, the European of Tacitus, the Negro, the Hun, and the American. The Chinese, the Hindoo, or the Malay, may have descended from the stock of Europeans, and may have produced the Americans: we speak only of what is pretty clearly defined; though, if the latter suggestions be admitted, the last must be excluded from the rank of a distinct species. We have not mentioned the Albinos, who are evidently a degenerated race; we have not made any remarks on the supposed change of colour in the Jews in Abyssinia, because it is not yet ascertained.

The English editor has added notes to this essay, which shew him to be possessed of no inconsiderable knowledge. He agrees, however, almost entirely with Dr. Smith, whose opinions he sometimes explains, and often endeavours to confirm.

We must not leave this enquiry, without remarking, that whatever conclusion we form of the distinct species, it ought not to affect the work of humanity in securing a better treatment to the Negroes. If they are found to be of a different species, they are still men; and if it appears that our own rank in the creation is the superior one, it should only suggest that mercy and compassion which we hope for from beings infinitely superior to ourselves.

At any rate, a work of benevolence and importance ought not, in the slightest degree, to be influenced by a speculative question—by a question which it is possible will never be decided.

*Remarks on the preceding piece.*

I Have read the observations of two sets of the reviewers in England, on Dr. Smith's *essay, on the causes of*  
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the variety of complexion and figure among mankind. The monthly reviewers speak of that essay with approbation. The critical reviewers on the other hand, who generally make it a point, if possible, to differ from the monthly, condemn the structure, the philosophy, and the title of the essay. The title they say is diffusive, the philosophy not sufficiently supported by facts, or well enough reasoned; and the structure not scientific. They have, however, done the essay, short as it is, the honour of a very long and laboured criticism, and have undertaken to reason on the opposite side of the question, which, I make no doubt, will, with every intelligent person, who shall carefully read both, be much in favour of the doctor's performance. The gentleman with whom these reviewers have entrusted the fabricating of this criticism is evidently an anatomist, and probably not much more. After apologizing to religion, for attacking the essay, they proceed to blame the structure of it. They say that "a philosopher would have examined the various figures and complexions of mankind," as if this examination did not run through the whole essay. But they add, "he should have distinguished what was decidedly the effect of climate and habit, from what is more permanent"—that is, he should have drawn the picture of a man entirely free from the modifications of every climate, and upon whom all climates act to produce their respective changes. With their leave, that is an absurdity; no man exists free from the modifying influence of some climate—and therefore the picture of such a man cannot be drawn. It is impossible to say, at this distance of time, what the first man was; but we have a general idea of the animal man sufficient for our purpose in this discussion, without the anatomical exactness which they require; and which, in this case is not attainable. They seem to require it only because it is impossible; that thereby the question may never be capable of a decision. I defy any anatomist, and even a reviewing anatomist, to tell the exact length, and thickness, and tension of the nerves, the precise stain of the membrane immediately below the scarf skin, and other particu-

lars of a similar kind that compose the general idea of the human species: or which compose that body upon which all accidental, climatical, or other changes are impressed. The dr. therefore was perfectly right in not attempting what is in its nature impossible, or at least beyond the present measure of human knowledge.

They proceed, "to loose and inconclusive is his reasoning that he has never enquired what really constitutes a different species. And then they tell us how the botanists have defined a species, and what attempts have been made to define a species among animals. They acknowledge that the true distinction of a species among animals has never been given, altho' they blame the writer of the essay for not doing it, and what is more, for not making it the foundation of all his following reasoning. Such a definition would necessarily have been attended with so much uncertainty, that no precise or certain philosophy could have been built upon it. In this instance at least the doctor has discovered himself to be a better philosopher than his reviewers. They presume, after struggling with the difficulty of species, and confessing that "in zoölogy, the species are not in reality ascertained with accuracy" to say that he ought to have adopted the botanical definition of a distinct species. "It is, say they, preserving the general and essential characters in changes of situation, and losing in time the accidental differences which climate and culture have produced." Now this definition requires us to ascertain what are the general and essential characters of the human species. These are not perfectly agreed upon by anatomists, nor by reviewers themselves—but whenever they will be good enough to agree, and point them out, I will undertake to show from the essay, to any fair and philosophic reasoner, that the general and essential characters of human nature are preserved in all changes of situation, and that it loses, in time, accidental differences which climate and society have produced. "Another cause of inaccuracy, say they, is a very indefinite use of terms. We have dark, swarthy, and black, used with little discrimination." This is palpable mis-

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representation—where, in the whole essay do they find black confounded with the dark and swarthy? on the other hand, if they were not so much biased by an opposite system as to lose both attention and candour, they would have found the gradation of colour from the fair and sanguine, marked by dark, swarthy, olive, copper, the Abyssinian black, and the jet black of Guinea.

But let the reader examine their criticism, in that part of it where they mention the different complexions under the 20th degree of latitude, and then judge who is guilty of an indefinite use of terms. This degree, they say, “cuts Arabia almost in its widest part; but the Arabians are only swarthy.” Pray what do they mean by swarthy? The good gentlemen are either ignorant, or dishonest. The northern Arabians are indeed swarthy, as *dr. Smith* evidently understands that term. But the southern Arabians are as black as the Abyssinians; that is, they are characterised by the intermediate grade of colour, between the copper, and the jet black. But they, with obvious duplicity, or want of information, range the whole country under one colour. They proceed to say, “it divides the Decan, where those best defended from the heat are only brown, and the poorer sort, of a darkish hue, very different from black. What do they mean by a brown, and a darkish hue? The latter term is certainly much more indefinite than any in the essay. Besides, in any way in which the terms can be understood, their remark is totally false; and, if it does not proceed from great ignorance, must from a much more dishonourable cause. The most intelligent travellers inform us, that the poorer class of people are as black as the Nubians, and much darker than our North American Indians—and I have seen six of them in this country, whose colour verified these relations. They add—which, however, is not immediately connected with the indefinite use of terms, but is with the general argument,—“It is contended that, in Borneo, we meet with a race of Negroes—If this be true, we admit the whole system.” Then I say the whole system ought to be admitted;

for we have the best evidence that the Borneans are just such as *dr. Smith* has described them—Not so black as the inhabitants of Guinea, but fully as black as those of Nubia; and their hair is short and curled. But, “the Aborigines, they say, must not be confounded with the Malays on the coast, who are of a blacker hue.” Very right, and agreeable to the principles of the essay. Islanders are never so dark as continentals, in the same latitude; nor the inhabitants of mountains, so dark as those of low lands. The centre of Borneo is a high mountainous country; and if all the inhabitants of the island were Aborigines, the mountaineers would be less highly coloured than the lowlanders.

They mention the striking differences that exist between the Huns, the Tartars, and the Greeks; and ask, “what climate gives the two former their peculiarity? What manners produce such a striking difference on the two latter?” Such questions might be asked a thousand times, after they had been as often solved, to prejudiced or careless readers. Those who read the essay with attention and discernment, will find these questions resolved, and a satisfactory reply made, to several of their remarks, in this part of their criticisms.

After pointing out “what *dr. Smith* should have done, they come to show what he has done.” They complain of his diffuseness on the subject of the bile, because it was “fortunately of great service to him;” and then say, “if however, he had proceeded to anatomical differences, he would have found the membrane, immediately under the scarf skin, black in the Negro; he would have found it tawny, when he was just born, and daily grow blacker, before the bile had any colour. He would have found it in the American, of a copper colour, and in the European, of a reddish white.” Be it so—And yet this fact, if it be a fact, does not militate against the general principles of the essay. The original causes of colour may be such as *dr. Smith* has pointed out, and, at least, plausibly established. He has proved at the same time, nearly to demonstration, that the causes which affect colour, produce such radical changes in the constitution as

are communicated to offspring. If they find the cellular membrane of an Indian, or a Negro, somewhat discoloured at the birth, they will find that of a brunette family proportionably discoloured, without militating against the identity of the human race, or the principles on which complexion has been accounted for. But to minds, like theirs, already prepossessed in favour of a peculiar opinion, the slightest appearances afford an argument, which they are seldom at pains to examine with accuracy, because they do not wish to examine it. They say, that in Tartars and Negroes, "the shape of the skull and legs is different" from the shape of the same members in the whites.—Agreed—it is so—tho' not in the degree which they seem to imagine. And does not the essay acknowledge it? Does it not profess to account for the phenomenon, by showing that the properties of parents are, in a degree, always transmitted to their children? Is not a consumptive habit transmitted? Will not a lady who has injured her own health, or shape, by too tight lacing, often shew the effects of it in her child? And why may not the head, in time, be affected, as well as the lungs, or the bowels? They proceed with equal wisdom to say, "the curly hair is a very important difference. If our author had examined, he would have found it to proceed from the tortuosity of the pores, through which it proceeds." If they had examined, would they have found all curled hair to rise out of tortuous pores? If so, might not the tortuosity of the pores, rather proceed from the tortuosity of the hair, or the causes that produce it? Will the curvature of the root of the hair necessarily produce the curvature of that part that is out of the skin? Will tortuous pores, more than straight ones, necessarily check its growth, and render it short and sparse? What becomes of the tortuosity of the pores in the Negroes of this country whose hair is growing longer, thicker, and straighter? Oh! most excellent philosophers! The good gentlemen, however, are pleased to smile only at the doctor's Negro queue of six inches, which they say has been the growth of some ages, instead of three generations.

"The Malays, they add, in a hotter climate than this third race of Negroes in America, have, in no instance, where it is allowed to grow, hair so short." That is true, because the climate of Asia in general tends to long hair, as that of Africa does to short and curled hair. In the Asiatic islands, therefore, although they lie beneath the equator, the hair of a Malay will never become so short as that of a Negro on the continent of Africa. But that it becomes shorter in the equatorial regions, even of Asia, than in the peninsulas of Arabia, and the two Indias, is a striking verification of the principles of dr. Smith's essay. The hair of the Negroes who have been removed to America, although it is growing longer, and straighter, yet lengthens slowly, however, because, as the essay justly observes, the melioration is always much less rapid, than the deterioration of the human species. They have, in the next place, done dr. Smith the honour to make two pretty long quotations from him—one in their smiling humour, and the other in a more grave one. He has reason to be very much obliged to them, because every judicious reader can compare his style and manner with theirs. After the former quotation, indeed, notwithstanding the extreme good humour in which they made it, they acknowledge, that, "on this subject, his foundation is secure."—But they add, "it is, however, impossible to accumulate more false physiology, or more erroneous facts, in similar space. If he looks at the Laplanders and the Esquimaux, the description will be found not to be just." Of the Esquimaux, at least, we in America can judge better than they; and dr. Smith need be under no apprehension of not being able to prove, by the most indubitable facts, that the description he has given of them is characteristic and just. After the second quotation, they acknowledge the propriety of his reflexions; but object to them, "that they are not sufficient to account for some phenomena," which he never intended to account for by them.

They then proceed to another quotation for which he ought to be equally obliged to them, as for the former. But let the well informed reader com-



pare his remarks with theirs—I mean the remarks in the essay, which follow the quotation, and he will be at no loss in favour of which he ought to determine.

They have traced a parallel of latitude, in the 20th degree, round the globe, and have informed us, that a great variety of complexions exist under the same line. They ought, also, to have informed us, that the author of the essay has enumerated all those varieties, and endeavoured to account for them; and on the justness, and the sound philosophy of that account, I believe he may, with every candid and enlightened reader, risk his literary reputation.

They hope for considerable supports to their opinion, from expeditions that are shortly to be undertaken into the heart of Africa. So may the Cartesians refute the Newtonian philosophy, by the expectation of future phenomena. But, even at present, they say “we can perceive with some clearness” the following distinct species of men—“the European of Tacitus, the Negro, the Hun, and the American.” In a former part of their strictures, they had made the Hun clearly distinct from the Tartar. But that may have been only a small oversight—they continue—“the Chinese, the Hindoo, or the Malay, may have descended from the stock of Europeans, and may have produced the Americans.”—This is a concession I did not expect. If they may have produced the American, both the tawny North-American, and the black Toupinambo of South-America, why not the blacker Negro of Africa? If they may have produced the Malay of Borneo with his curled hair and tortuous pores, why not the inhabitants of Guinea, or Monomotapa, although the tortuosity be a little greater? From such remarks as these, dr. Smith cannot possibly have any thing to fear; and if the principles of his philosophy are shaken, it must be by a very different kind of arguments. They allow, in the conclusion, that the English editor of dr. Smith’s essay, possesses no inconsiderable knowledge, who has added notes to explain and confirm the doctor’s opinions. It is certainly somewhat in favour of the merits of that essay,

that it has gone through two editions in Britain, and that it has been thought worthy of the annotations of a philosopher of genius and information.



*An examination of the question, whether the children of the poor should receive a literary education or not?*

**W**ITHOUT the labour of the poor, society could not subsist; the prince would be left solitary in his palace, and the rich man would perish amidst the abundance of his wealth; yet there is no man who would choose a laborious state; nothing but necessity could compel him to unremitting toil and coarse fare, and nothing but habit from his earliest days could reconcile him to it. Had he ever known better things, or had he been accustomed, in the beginning of life, to ease and good living, it would have been a cruel and insupportable change to return from that to a state of penury and hard labour.

If, then, it be absolutely necessary that there should be a great proportion of mankind destined to drudgery, in the meanest occupations, who must sweat under heavy burdens, and yet be satisfied with a scanty morsel, it is surely an object of importance to render this state as supportable as we can make it. As nothing but early habit can render it tolerable, therefore to give to the meanest of the people an education beyond that station which providence has assigned them, is doing them a real injury. This accustoms them to a more easy and comfortable manner of living than they have afterwards the probability of enjoying, which only serves to render their advanced years more unhappy; or it tempts them to aspire to a station beyond what they can ever reasonably hope to attain; the prospect of which makes them discontented with their humble sphere.

The son of a day labourer has before his eyes the example of his father, who, by persevering industry, and hard labour, brings home what is barely sufficient to afford food and clothing to his family. He entertains no idea of his having a title to a better station in life than his parents possessed. He sees he must submit to a

like toil, or be reduced to the more despicable state of beggary or want; he, therefore, enters cheerfully on his task, and is happy to find employment.

We may pity the state of such; but we seldom hear them complain. Having never known better things, they are contented with their lot. Temperance and exercise renders a crust of bread and a cup of water more delicious to their taste, than the richest feast is to a pampered appetite. The fatigue of the day renders the sight of their cottage pleasant, and they lie down to a sound sleep without feeling the hardness of the board they rest on.

This manner of living, which habit has rendered familiar, is far from being so unhappy as many are inclined to think it. A person who has been accustomed to live delicately would soon faint beneath that toil, which to them is little more than a recreation. Instead of groaning, we hear them whistling and singing in the midst of their labour. They may enjoy few of the luxuries of life, and be ignorant of many pleasures which affluence affords, but they are also freed from many of those disquietudes, and uneasy passions, which vex the spirits of the great, and often render even their existence insupportable. If their industry affords them only the plainest food and clothing, it is some compensation that they are perplexed with no other care. They are happily ignorant of the pangs of disappointed ambition, of mortified pride, and of humbled vanity. Their sleep is not disturbed by guilty fears, nor is their mind tortured by long laboured schemes or hazardous designs. Their days and years glide gently on in simplicity and peace.

Let us now suppose a child, born to this station of life, taken from his father's cottage by a wealthy neighbour; that he is comfortably fed and clothed until he is twelve years of age, without being put to any hard labour; that he receives knowledge and education far beyond what his parents possessed, or were ever able to afford him, and that he is then ordered to return to his father's hovel, to coarse fare and to labour, of which he had hitherto no idea; can we say that such a seeming benefactor had done this person a real

good service? Is he not, on the contrary, rendered miserable, or wholly unprepared for that station, which otherwise would have become familiar and easy to him?

It may be replied, Why compel him to return to this servile state; why not let him rise to a better? if he cannot bear the sultry heat of the mid-day sun, or stand the beating rain and chilling cold, let him go to an easier occupation. Be it so; but who then is to undergo that labour which he should have performed, for which he was born, and which providence at first assigned him? It must be either left undone, or others, born to better things, must submit to it. Thus, by a partial service done to him, a real injury is done to society, or a kind of injustice to some other individual.



*Account of the climate of Pennsylvania, and its influence upon the human body. From medical enquiries and observations.—By Benjamin Rush, M. D. professor of chemistry in the university of Pennsylvania.—Printed and sold by Prichard and Hall.—P. 27.*

THE warmest weather is generally in the month of July. But intensely warm days are often felt in May, June, August and September. In the annexed table of the weather for the year 1787\*, there is an exception to the first of these remarks. It shows that the mean heat of August was greater by a few degrees than that of July.

The transitions from heat to cold are often very sudden, and sometimes to very distant degrees. After a day in which the mercury has stood at 86° and even 90°, it sometimes falls in the course of a single night to the 65th, and even to the 60th degree, insomuch that fires have been found necessary the ensuing morning, especially if the change in the temperature of the air has been accompanied by rain and a south-east wind. In a summer month in the year 1775, the mercury was observed to fall 20° in an hour and an half. There are few

#### NOTE.

\* The table will appear in a subsequent number.

summers in which fires are not agreeable during some parts of them. My ingenious friend Mr. David Rittenhouse, whose talent for accurate observation extends alike to all subjects, informed me, that he had never passed a summer, during his residence in the country, without discovering frost in every month of the year, except July.

The weather is equally variable in Pennsylvania during the greatest part of the winter. The mercury fell from  $37^{\circ}$  to  $4\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  below 0, in four and twenty hours, between the fourth and fifth of February 1783. In this season nature seems to play at cross-purposes: heavy falls of snow are often succeeded in a few days by a general thaw which frequently in a short time leaves no vestige of the snow: the rivers Delaware, Schuylkill and Susquehanna, have sometimes been frozen (so as to bear horses and carriages of all kinds) and thawed so as to be passable in boats, two or three times in the course of the same winter. The ice is formed for the most part in a gradual manner, and seldom till it has been previously chilled by a fall of snow. Sometimes its production is more sudden. On the 31st of December 1764, the Delaware was completely frozen over between ten o'clock at night and eight the next morning, so as to bear the weight of a man. An unusual vapour like a fog was seen to rise from the water, in its passage from a fluid to a solid state.

This account of the variableness of the weather in winter, does not apply to every part of Pennsylvania. There is a line about the  $41^{\circ}$  of the state, beyond which the winters are steady and regular, inasmuch that the earth there is seldom without a covering of snow during the three winter months. In this line the climate of Pennsylvania forms a union with the climate of the eastern and northern states.

The time in which frost and ice begin to shew themselves in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, is generally about the latter end of October or the beginning of November. But the intense cold seldom sets in about the 20th or 25th of December: hence the common saying, "as the day lengthens, the cold strengthens." The coldest weather is commonly in

January. The navigation of the river Delaware, after being frozen, is seldom practicable for large vessels, before the first week in March.

As in summer there are often days in which fires are agreeable, so there are sometimes days in winter in which they are disagreeable. Vegetation has been observed in all the winter months. Garlic was raised in butter in January 1781. The leaves of the willow, the blossom of the peach-tree, and the flowers of the dandelion and the crocus were all seen in February 1779; and I well recollect, about thirty-two years ago, to have seen an apple orchard in full bloom, and small apples on many of the trees, in the month of December.

A cold day in winter is often succeeded by a moderate evening. The coldest part of the four and twenty hours is generally at the break of day.

In the most intense cold which has been recorded in Philadelphia, within the last twenty years, the mercury stood at  $5^{\circ}$  below 0. But it appears from the accounts published by Messrs. Mason and Dixon, in the 58th volume of the transactions of the Royal Society of London, that the mercury stood at  $22^{\circ}$  below 0 on the 2d of January, 1767, at Brandywine, about thirty miles to the westward of Philadelphia. They inform us, that on the first of the same month the mercury stood at  $20^{\circ}$ , and on the day before at  $7^{\circ}$  below 0. I have to lament that I am not able to procure any record of the temperature of the air in the same year in Philadelphia. From the variety in the height, and quality of the soil, and from the difference in the currents of winds, and the quantities of rain and snow which fall in different parts of the state, it is very probable this excessive cold may not have extended thirty miles from the place where it was perceived.

The greatest degree of heat upon record in Philadelphia, is  $95^{\circ}$ .

The standard temperature of the air in the city of Philadelphia, is  $59\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ , which is the temperature of our deepest wells, as also the mean heat of our common spring water.

The spring in Pennsylvania is generally less pleasant, than in many other countries. In March the weather is

stormy, variable, and cold. In April, and sometimes in the beginning of May, it is moist, and accompanied by a degree of cold which has been called rawness, and which, from its disagreeable effects upon the temper, has been called the *firocco* of this country. From the variable nature of the weather in the spring, vegetation advances very differently in different years. The colder the spring, the more favourable it proves to the fruits of the earth. The hopes of the farmer from his fruit-trees, in a warm spring, are often blasted by a frost in April and May. A fall of snow is remembered with regret, by many of them, on the night between the third and fourth of May, in the year 1774. The colder the winter, the greater delay we observe in the return of the ensuing spring.

Sometimes the weather, during the spring months, is cloudy and damp, attended occasionally with a gentle fall of rain, resembling the spray from a cataract of water. A day of this species of weather is called, from its resemblance to a damp day in Great-Britain, "an English day." This damp weather seldom continues more than three or four days. The month of May, 1786, will long be remembered, for having furnished a very uncommon instance of the absence of the sun for fourteen days, and of constant damp or rainy weather.

The month of June is the only month in the year which resembles a spring month in the southern countries of Europe. The weather is then generally temperate, the sky is serene, and the verdure of the country is universal and delightful.

The autumn is the most agreeable season of the year in Pennsylvania. The cool evenings and mornings, which generally begin about the first week in September, are succeeded by a moderate temperature of the air during the day. This species of weather continues with an increase of cold scarcely perceptible, till the middle of October, when the autumn is closed by rain, which sometimes falls in such quantities as to produce destructive freshes in the rivers and creeks, and sometimes descends in gentle showers, which continue with occasional interruptions by a few fair

days, for two or three weeks. These rains are the harbingers of the winter, and the Indians have long ago taught the inhabitants of Pennsylvania, that the degrees of cold during the winter, are in proportion to the quantity of rain which falls during the autumn\*.

From this account of the temperature of the air in Pennsylvania, it is evident that there are seldom more than four months in which the weather is agreeable without a fire.

In winter, the winds generally come from the north-west in fair, and from the north-east in wet weather. The north-west winds are uncommonly dry as well as cold. It is in consequence of the violent action of these winds that trees have uniformly a thicker and more compact bark on their northern, than on their southern exposures. Even brick houses are affected by the force and dryness of these north-west winds: hence it is much more difficult to demolish the northern than the southern walls of an old brick house. This fact was communicated to me by an eminent bricklayer in the city of Philadelphia.

The winds in fair weather in the spring, and in warm weather in the

#### NOTE.

\* I cannot help agreeing with Mr. Kirwan in one of his remarks upon the science of meteorology in the preface to his estimate of the temperature of different latitudes. "This science (says he) if brought to perfection, would enable us at least to foresee those changes in the weather, which we could not prevent. Great as is the distance between such knowledge, and our own present attainments, we have no reason to think it above the level of the powers of the human mind. The motions of the planets must have appeared as perplexed and intricate to those who first contemplated them; yet by persevering industry, they are now known to the utmost precision. The present is (as the great Leibnitz expresses it) in every case pregnant with the future, and the connexion must be found by long and attentive observation."

The influence which the perfection of this science must have upon health, agriculture, navigation and commerce, is too obvious to be mentioned.



summer, blow from the south-west and from west north-west. The raw air before mentioned, comes from the north-east. The south-west winds likewise usually bring with them those showers of rain in the spring and summer, which refresh the earth. They moreover moderate the heat of the weather, provided they are succeeded by a north-west wind. Now and then showers of rain come from the west north-west.

There is a common fact connected with the account of the usual winds in Pennsylvania, which it may not be improper to mention in this place. While the clouds are seen flying from the south-west, the scud, as it is called, or a light vapour, is seen at the same time flying below the clouds from the north-east.

The moisture of the air is much greater than formerly, occasioned probably by the exhalations, which in former years fell in the form of snow, now descending in the form of rain. The depth of the snow is sometimes between two and three feet, but in general it seldom exceeds between six and nine inches.

Hail frequently descends with snow in winter. Once in four or five years large and heavy showers of hail fall in the spring and summer. They generally run in narrow veins (as they are called) of thirty or forty miles in length, and two or three miles in breadth. The heaviest shower of hail that is remembered in Philadelphia, did not extend in breadth more than half a mile north and south. Some of the stones weighed half an ounce. The windows of many houses were broken by them. This shower fell in May 1783.

From sudden changes in the air, rain and snow often fall together, forming what is commonly called sleet.

In the uncultivated parts of the state, the snow sometimes lies on the ground till the first week in April. The backwardness of the spring has been ascribed to the passage of the air over the undissolved beds of snow and ice which usually remain, after the winter months are past, on the north-west grounds and waters of the state, and of the adjacent country.

The dissolution of the ice and snow

in the spring, is sometimes so sudden as to swell the creeks and rivers in every part of the state to such a degree, as not only to lay waste the hopes of the husbandman from the produce of his lands, but in some instances to sweep his barns, stables, and even his dwelling house into their currents\*. The wind during a gene-

#### NOTE.

\* The following account of the thaw of the river Susquehannah, in the spring of 1784, was published by the author in the *Columbian Magazine* for November 1786. It may serve to illustrate a fact related formerly in the history of the winters in Pennsylvania, as well as to exhibit an extraordinary instance of the destructive effects of a sudden thaw.

"The winter of 1783-4, was uncommonly cold, inasmuch that the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer stood several times at 5 degrees below 0. The snows were frequent; and, in many places, from two to three feet deep, during the greatest part of the winter. All the rivers in Pennsylvania were frozen, so as to bear waggons and sleds with immense weights. In the month of January a thaw came on suddenly, which opened our rivers so as to set the ice a-driving, to use the phrase of the country. In the course of one night, during the thaw, the wind shifted suddenly to the north-west, and the weather became intensely cold. The ice, which had floated the day before, was suddenly obstructed; and in the river Susquehannah, the obstructions were formed in those places where the water was most shallow, or where it had been accustomed to fall. This river is several hundred miles in length, and from half a mile to a mile and an half in breadth, and winds through a hilly, and in many places a fertile and highly cultivated country. It has as yet a most difficult communication with our bays and the sea, occasioned by the number and height of the falls which occur near the mouth of the river. The ice in many places, especially where there were falls, formed a kind of dam, of a most stupendous height. About the middle of March our weather moderated, and a thaw became general. The effects of it were ere-

ral thaw, comes from the south-west or south-east.

(To be continued.)

#### NOTE.

markable in all our rivers; but in none so much as in the river I have mentioned. I shall therefore endeavour in a few words to describe them. Unfortunately the dams of ice did not give way all at once, nor those which lay nearest to the mouth of the river, first. While the upper dams were set a float by the warm weather, the lower ones, which were the largest, and in which, of course, the ice was most impacted, remained fixed. In consequence of this, the river rose in a few hours, in many places, above thirty feet; rolling upon its surface large lumps of ice, from ten to forty cubic feet in size. The effects of this sudden inundation were terrible. Whole farms were laid under water. Barns—stables—horses—cattle—fences—mills of every kind, and in one instance, a large stone house, forty by thirty feet, were carried down the stream. Large trees were torn up by the roots—several small islands covered with woods, were swept away, and not a vestige of them was left behind. On the barns which preserved

their shape, in some instances, for many miles were to be seen living fowls; and, in one dwelling, a candle was seen to burn for some time, after it was swept from its foundation. Where the shore was level, the lumps of ice, and the ruins of houses and farms, were thrown a quarter of a mile from the ordinary height of the river. In some instances, farms were ruined by the mould being swept from them by the cakes of ice, or by depositions of sand; while others were enriched by large depositions of mud. The damage, upon the whole, done to the state of Pennsylvania by this fresh, was very great. In most places it happened in the day time, or the consequences must have been fatal to many thousands.

“I know of but one use that can be derived from recording the history of this inundation. In case of similar obstructions of rivers, from causes such as have been described, the terrible effects of their being set in motion by means of a general thaw, may in part be obviated, by removing such things out of the course of the water and ice, as are within our power; particularly cattle, hay, grain, fences, and farming utensils of all kinds.”

#### THE BERMUDIAN.

**B**ERMUDA, parent of my early days,  
To thee belong my tributary lays;  
In thy blest'd clime, secur'd from instant harms,  
A tender mother press'd me in her arms,  
Lull'd me to rest with many a ditty rare,  
And look'd, and smil'd, upon her infant care;  
She taught my lisping accents how to flow,  
And bade the virtues in my bosom glow.

Hail, nature's darling spot! enchanted isle!  
Where vernal blooms in sweet succession smile!  
Where, cherish'd by the soft'ning sea-born gale,  
Appears the tall Palmetto of the vale;  
The rich Banana, tenant of the shade,  
With leaf broad spreading to the breeze display'd;  
The memorable tree of aspect bold,  
That grac'd thy plains, O Libanus of old,  
The fragrant lime, the lemon at his side,  
And golden orange, fair Hesperia's pride;  
While genial summer, who, approaching fast,  
Claims to disperse the short-liv'd wintry blast,  
O'er the green hill and cedar-bearing plain  
Boasts, undisturb'd, a long protracted reign.

Here blushing health descending from above,  
The daughter fair of cloud-compelling Jove,  
Pleas'd with the scene, in simple nature gay,  
And importun'd by temperance to stay,  
In pity to the weary peasant's toil,  
With blessings crown'd the wave-surrounded soil.

Too happy land! if, in the search around,  
The source of opulence could here be found,  
And thy worn offspring, ev'ry care resign'd,  
His dwelling peaceful, and serene his mind,  
With independence blest'd, could sit him down  
In age, secure from niggard fortune's frown;  
But early torn reluctant from their home,  
Amidst the tempest's roar condemn'd to roam,  
Thy scatter'd sons, a race of giant form,  
Whose souls at peril mock, and brave the storm,  
At honest labour's call, with fruitless pains,  
Are far dispers'd o'er Britain's wide domains.

Eternal blessings with profusion smile,  
And crown with lasting bliss my parent isle!  
Blest'd be the narrow field, the little cot,  
And blest'd the lab'ring swain's contented lot!  
For thee, may commerce, to the southern gale,  
Successfully expand her swelling sail,  
And from Peruvian mines, the slave, for thee,  
With treasures load the wave-dividing tree;  
With joy returning, each endeavour sped,  
No more compell'd to roam for scanty bread,  
All heart-corroding cares at length suppress'd,  
Each want supply'd, and ev'ry wish possess'd,  
May thy lost children, to their friends restor'd,  
Taste ev'ry blessing fortune can afford:  
While I, whose birth more inauspicious far,  
Confess'd the reign of some malignant star,  
Whose name, alas! from fair enjoyment's date,  
Strands far remov'd upon the roll of fate,  
With weary step each distant realm explore,  
A wand'ring exile from my native shore.

Oft when, in shades envelop'd, night descends,  
And darkness o'er the hemisphere extends,  
When gloomy silence hushes ev'ry sound,  
And dead tranquillity prevails around;  
When the distress'd, forgetful of their woes,  
In balmy sleep their heavy eyelids close;  
While no repose my weary soul can find,  
Thy lov'd idea rises in my mind.  
Swift at the thought, and for enjoyment keen,  
Regardless of the seas that roll between,  
Where o'er surrounding depths thy cliffs arise,  
With rapid wing my busy fancy flies;  
And representing scenes of past delights,  
A painful pleasure in my breast excites.

E'en now transported to my native land,  
Upon the summit of some hill I stand;  
The cedars view, uncultur'd as they grow,  
And all the varied scenery below.  
Far at a distance, as the eye can reach,  
Extend the mazes of the winding beach:

Here on the coast the bellowing ocean roars,  
While foaming surges lash the whiten'd shores ;  
Stupendous rocks in wild confusion stand,  
Lift their tall crags, and sadden all the strand.

Before Aurora gilds the eastern skies,  
The sun-burnt tenants of the cottage rise ;  
With many a yawn their drowsy comrades hail,  
Rub their dim eyes, and taste the morning gale.  
Some bear the basket, pleniously supply'd  
With hooks and lines, the able fishers pride ;  
Others with dextrous hands the toils display,  
Well skill'd to circumvent the scaly prey ;  
With wide extended nets the shores they sweep,  
Or man the bark and plough the finny deep.  
The happy islander, return'd at night,  
Recounts the day's adventures with delight,  
 Astonishes the list'ning crowd with tales  
Of rocks avoided, and of dang'rous gales,  
Of groupers, who, deluded by the bait,  
Shar'd many a former grouper's wretched fate,  
And rockfish, who had tugg'd the well stretch'd line,  
Oblig'd their pond'rous carcase to resign.  
The little urchin, playing on the strand,  
At distance kens the bark return'd to land ;  
He hies impatient, views the scaly store,  
And bids his parent welcome to the shore.

Meanwhile the housewife decks the cleanly board,  
With all her homely cottage can afford ;  
Her little brood are seated to their with,  
And taste the blessings of the smoaking dish ;  
Of childish stories prattle all the while,  
Regarding either parent with a smile ;  
The finny monster's grateful taste admire,  
And for it bless their providential fire.  
He with delight the youthful tribe surveys,  
His gladden'd eyes still brighten as they gaze ;  
Of earthly joys he knows no higher pitch,  
And bids the prince be great, the miser rich.

Where rising Phœbus darts the morning ray,  
The verdant hills a diff'rent scene display ;  
Promiscuous houses in the vale are seen,  
Whose decent white adorns the lively green.  
The weary peasant, here reclin'd at ease,  
Beneath his fig-tree, courts the southern breeze ;  
Or, while the great at fruitless cares repine,  
He sits the monarch of his little vine.

There scatter'd isles, whose banks the waters lave,  
Grace with their herbage the pellucid wave.  
The lordly bullock there, unrais'd to toil,  
Securely stalks, the tyrant of the soil ;  
While tender lambkins on the margin play,  
And sport and gambol in the sunny day.

The sturdy craftsman, with laborious hand,  
Fells the tall tree, and drags it to the strand ;  
Resounding shores return the hammer's blows ;  
Beneath the stroke the gaudy pinnace grows,  
Launch'd and completely mann'd in quest of gain,  
Spreads her light sails, and tempts the wat'ry main.



Near yonder hill, above the stagnant pool,  
 My stern preceptor taught his little school;  
 Dextrous t' apply the scientific rod—  
 The little triants shudder'd at his nod;  
 Whene'er he came, they all submissive bow'd,  
 All scan'd their tasks, industriously loud,  
 And, fearful to excite the master's rage,  
 With trembling hand produc'd the blotted page,  
 Skilful he was, and dabbled in the law;  
 Bonds, notes, petitions—any thing—could draw;  
 'Twas even whisper'd, and 'tis strictly true,  
 He claim'd acquaintance with the muses too,  
 And by the goddesses inspir'd, at times,  
 His lofty genius mounted into rhymes.  
 Great bard! what numbers can thy praise rehearse,  
 Who turn'd *Qui mihi* into English verse;  
 Taught numerous epigrams in rhyme to glide,  
 And e'en at lines of heav'nly Maro try'd?  
 Though many an epitaph of thine was known  
 To grace the cold commemorating stone.  
 Thy own remains, in some neglected spot,  
 Now lie, unsung, unheeded, and forgot.

No more frequented by the festive bands,  
 Behold yon solitary mansion stands.—  
 There fair Ardella tripp'd along the vale,  
 Her auburn tresses floating in the gale;  
 Sweet as the fav'rite offspring of the May,  
 Serenely mild, and innocently gay.  
 Ardella, once so cheerful, and so blest'd,  
 Now by misfortune's iron hand oppress'd:  
 Methinks I see the solitary maid  
 Pensive beneath the spreading cedar's shade,  
 (No soothing friend, no voice of comfort near)  
 Heave the big sigh, and shed the silent tear.  
 "Awake to consolation, nor repine  
 "Because the sorrows of to-day are thine:  
 "In air let sublunary cares be hurl'd,  
 "And look exulting to a better world;  
 "Triumphant virtue there shall bear the sway,  
 "And lift thee far above the solar ray."

Far to the south, above the wat'ry roar,  
 Where the blue ocean rolls against the shore,  
 And the tall cliffs and sloping mountain's side  
 O'erlook the deep, and stop the coming tide,  
 Of ancient date, now calling for repair.  
 Is seen the parish church, the house of pray'r.  
 No stately columns there superbly rise,  
 No tow'ring steeple greets the distant skies,  
 No pompous domes magnificence impart,  
 Strike the pleas'd eye or show the master's art.  
 To mark the silent mansions of the dead,  
 No obelisk of marble rears its head,  
 No finely decorated tomb is shown,  
 No sculptur'd monument of Parian stone;  
 But the rude native quarry, as it lies,  
 A far more coarse remembrance supplies,  
 Which the dejected son, reduc'd to mourn  
 The much lov'd parent from his bosom torn,

The last sad honours to his ashes paid,  
Sighing, erefts to the departed shade.

Touch'd with the theme, by pow'rful fancy led  
To more remote apartments of the dead,  
I fee sad Atticus, in filent gloom,  
Indignant quit the folitary tomb,  
His ancient well-remember'd form renew,  
And pafs before me flowly in review.  
The happy thought, the mirth-exciting joke,  
The turn fatyrical, the pointed ftroke,  
The vein of humour, the remark fo dry,  
The witty fally, and the keen reply.  
Around the focial table form'd to fhine,  
Without a rival, Atticus, were thine.

Talents like thefe (for they have feldom fail'd)  
While bus'nefs flagg'd, and indolence prevail'd,  
And fullen prudence, frowning, flood aloof,  
Entic'd the jovial circle to thy roof,  
And for life's eve, thy glory in the wane,  
Prepar'd a fund of indigence and pain.

Thrice happy thou, if to difcretion led  
By the much valued partner of thy bed,  
Thou hadft been taught more lafting blifs to prize  
And learn'd from her example to be wife!  
But fhe, fuch ill unable to withftand,  
When deadly pale difeafe, with tyrant hand,  
Thy cruel deftiny relentless wrote,  
Thy vifage fadden'd, and thy dwelling fmote,  
For thy unhappy lot with grief opprefs'd,  
Before thee funk to everlafting reft.

Though at a diftance from my fearching eye,  
Amidft futorounding woods, thy dwelling lie,  
Though envious time and weaning abfence ftrove  
Thy cherifh'd image from my breaft to drive,  
Yet near my heart (for they fhall ftrove in vain)  
His wonted place fhall Candidus retain.

If manly fenfe, if an extenfive mind,  
Unfway'd by prejudice, and unconfin'd,  
A judgment happy to decide with fkill,  
But mild and open to conviction ftill,  
A voice in polifh'd numbers taught to roll,  
Whofe accents waft the mufic of the foul,  
An honeft heart, a temper that can learn  
To love mankind, and to be lov'd in turn,  
If fentiments humane, combin'd with thefe  
May challenge merit and expect to please,  
Of gentle manners, affable and free,  
The praife, O Candidus, is due to thee.

Beneath my bending eye, ferenely neat,  
Appears my ever-blefs'd paternal feat.  
Far in the front the level lawn extends,  
The zephyrs play, the nodding cyprefs bends;  
A little hillock ftands on either fide,  
O'erspread with evergreens, the garden's pride,  
Promifcuous here appears the blufhing rofe,  
The guava flourifhes, the myrtle grows;

The earth-born woodbines on the surface creep,  
 O'er the green beds the red carnations peep,  
 Aloft their arms triumphant lilacks bear,  
 And jessamines perfume the ambient air.  
 The whole is from an eminence display'd,  
 Where the brown olive lends his pensive shade.  
 When zephyrs there the noon-tide heat assuage,  
 Oft have I turn'd the meditative page,  
 And calmly read the ling'ring hours away,  
 Securely shelter'd from the blaze of day.  
 At eve refresh'd, I trod the mazy walk,  
 And bade the minutes pass in cheerful talk ;  
 With many a joke my brothers would assail,  
 Or please my sisters with the comic tale ;  
 While each fond parent, charm'd, the group survey'd,  
 Attentive heard, and smil'd at all we said.

Thrice happy seat ! Here once were centred all  
 That bind my heart to this terrestrial bail ;  
 The light of these each gloomy thought destroys,  
 And ties my soul to sublimary joys.

Ye pow'rs supreme, who rule the spangled sky,  
 On whose protection firmly they rely,  
 Grant them each bliss the fertile mind can form,  
 And lift them high above misfortune's storm !

But hark ! I see them to the green repair,  
 To taste the sweets of the refreshing air :  
 Descend, my soul, on airy pinions light,  
 The circle join, and feast thy gladden'd sight.

Hail, ever-honour'd authors of my birth,  
 The poor's assistants, and the friends of worth !  
 My best of brothers, hail ! Companion dear,  
 Unhaken friend, and partner of my care.  
 My sisters too ! transported let me gaze,  
 And bless the sweet'ners of my former days.  
 A long lost wand'rer to your arms receive,  
 Soothe all his sorrows, and his cares relieve.

How incomplete is each terrestrial joy,  
 Where disappointments all our hopes destroy !  
 Two other sons should in the circle stand !  
 For these, alas ! I search a distant land ;  
 Lament them lost, an honour to their race,  
 And with a sigh, behold their vacant place.

Though *Carolina*, skill'd in social lore,  
 With open arms receiv'd me to her shore ;  
 Although her sons, an hospitable band,  
 Have hail'd me, welcome, to their fertile land ;  
 Though (thanks to all my guardian powers) there  
 I found a brother and a friend sincere,  
 Still (for 'tis natural) affection's tide  
 Flows where my honour'd parents both reside.

For ever blotted be the fatal day,  
 That tore me from their circling arms away  
 When the tall ship, regardless of my pain,  
 Call'd me reluctant to the founding main ;  
 Aloft her swelling sails triumphant bore,  
 And left them pensive on the winding shore !

My aged parent's awful voice I hear—  
 The solemn sound still vibrates in my ear—  
 "Adieu, my son! with winds propitious go,  
 "Obtain what knowledge travel can bestow.  
 "Thy neighbour's friend, an enemy to strife,  
 "Uprightly walk the mazy path of life.  
 "Let honour's rules thy ev'ry act control,  
 "Nor suffer vice to bend thy stubborn soul.  
 "Should sov'reign gold, the tyrant of mankind,  
 "Attempt from justice to divert thy mind,  
 "Exulting still, prefer the frugal crust,  
 "And spurn, with high contempt, the guilty dust.  
 "Let all the storms of Fortune be defy'd,  
 "Virtue thy friend, and Providence thy guide."

## FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Stockholm, June 5.

A Corps of 1100 Russians assembled at Ruskiala, a village, on the borders of the province of Carelia, waiting only for the arrival of a sufficient number of pieces of ordnance, to make an irruption into that province. Major Gripenberg, who was posted in the neighbourhood, with a battalion of the regiment of Tavallesius, and four cannon, resolved an attack on the 17th ult. though his whole force consisted only of about two hundred and fifty men. In their approach the Swedes were so fortunate as immediately to dismount some field pieces, with which the Russians disputed the entrance of the village, and soon after the powder magazine of the enemy blew up, by which a great number of them perished.

The battle then commenced, and continued with great obstinacy for upwards of three hours. Major Gripenberg computes the loss of the enemy at about 400 killed, and a considerable number wounded. He quit- ted the field, however, though he had only 17 killed and 30 wounded. The Russians also after the action, evacuated Ruskiala, and retreated to Sordawalla. The Swedes fired red hot shot, being informed that the Russians had deposited their powder in one of the adjoining houses. Major Gripenberg has been promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel; every officer under his command has been advanced one degree; and a reward of a Swedish ducat is ordered to be given to each private soldier.

Paris, June 17.

States-general of France.

The chamber of the third estate seeing all their conciliatory measures ineffectual, and that the nobles were determined not to unite with them in their assembly, have passed the two last days in considering on the legal manner of constituting themselves as the representatives of the people at large, and on the title their assembly should hereafter assume. The motion was at length made, "that the national assembly is now legally constituted: and this motion was carried by 91 voices against 80.

A second motion was then made, that that national assembly immediately deliberate on the affairs of the nation, which was unanimously agreed to. It was then proposed, that all the existing taxes, that have been imposed without the consent of the nation, were illegal, and ought therefore to cease; and for the immediate service of government they should now be granted anew under the same form as heretofore, to continue till some new provisions should be made, or till the last day of this present session, and no longer.

They next took into consideration the public debt, and placed the creditors of the state under the protection of the honour and loyalty of the nation at large.

About two o'clock, when these important proceedings were at an end, the president was sent for to receive from the keeper of the seals, the promised answer to their justificatory address of last week, to the king, which was read to a very full assembly. The



galleries of the hall, which are capable of containing near three thousand people, as well as all the avenues, were completely crowded. The letter, in the king's own hand writing, and addressed to the president of the third estate, is as follows :

"I shall never refuse to receive any of the presidents of the three orders, when charged to convey a particular message to me, and when they shall have asked by the\* customary organ of my keeper of the seals, the moment it shall please me to appoint. I disapprove the repeated expression of "privileged classes," employed by the third estate to designate the two higher orders. These unusual expressions are fit only to foment a spirit of division absolutely contrary to the advancement of the welfare of the state; since this welfare can only be effected by the concurrence of the three orders, composing the states-general, whether they deliberate separately or in common. The reserve which the order of the nobles had made in their acquiescence in the conciliatory overture made by me, ought not to have prevented the order of the third estate from giving me a proof of their deference. Adopted by the third estate, it would have determined the order of nobles to desist from their modification. I am persuaded, that the more the deputies of the third estate shall give me marks of confidence and attachment, the more faithfully will their measures represent the sentiments of the people whom I love, and by whom I shall make it my happiness to be beloved."

If there appears some little (perhaps politic) disapprobation of certain ideas of the commons in this letter, the nobles have had their share in the royal answer to their absurd resolution, on the same conciliatory proposition, which is as follows :

"I have examined the resolution of the order of nobles. I have seen with pain that they persist in their reserve of the modifications they annexed to the plan proposed by my commissioners. A greater proportion of deference on the part of the

nobles, would have perhaps produced the reconciliation I desired."

The commons yesterday evening sent a deputation to Marli, to communicate to his majesty the very important resolutions they came to yesterday, and their intention of co-operating with him in the great national work of reformation, still determining to act with the same moderation, by leaving the door at all times open to their brethren of the clergy and nobles.

June 25. Events of such high importance have occurred, and their succession has been so rapid within the last four days, that it is impossible we can find room for a circumstantial detail. The following is a succinct narrative.

The decisive resolutions of the commons threw the court into the greatest alarm. A majority of the clergy voted their union with the commons on the 22d; the nobility presented a violent address against the proceedings of the national assembly to the king, who in his answer evidently adopted their sentiments. The queen, the comte d'Artois, the Polignacs, &c. had got entire possession of him at Marli; it was at a council held there, at which Monsieur and the comte d'Artois assisted, that the violent measures, beforementioned, were concerted. The king was encouraged to come forward and crush the whole business, by a bold stroke of authority. M. Neckar was to be exiled from France; the prince de Condé named generalissimo; the prince de Conti, minister, &c. We have seen that the commons were not to be intimidated, but continued their meeting on Monday, when they were formally joined by the clergy in a body.

The royal session was postponed till Tuesday, when his majesty appeared, and the business commenced by a marked insult to the commons, who were kept waiting in a nasty unwholesome place, till the other orders were seated, and at length were compelled to enter by a back door.

After the keeper of the seals had informed the president of the commons that his majesty would not hear the discourse, which he intended to address to him, the king opened the assembly by the following speech:

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#### NOTE.

\* The commons had demanded a direct communication with the king.

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"Gentlemen,

"At the time I took the resolution of assembling you; when I had surmounted all the difficulties which threatened a convocation of my states; when I had, to use the expression, even preconceived the desires of the nation, in manifesting beforehand my wishes for its welfare, I thought I had done every thing which depended on myself for the good of my people.

"It seemed to me that you had only to finish the work I had begun; and the nation expected impatiently the moment when, in conjunction with the beneficent views of its sovereign, and the enlightened zeal of its representatives, it was about to enjoy that prosperous and happy state which such an union seemed likely to afford.

"The states general have now been opened more than two months, and have not yet even agreed on the preliminaries of their operations. Instead of that source of harmony which should spring from a love of the country, a most fatal division spreads an alarm over every mind. I find that the dispositions of Frenchmen are not changed; but to avoid reproaching either of you, I shall consider, that the renewal of the states general, after so long a period, the turbulence which preceded it, the object of this assembly, so different from that of your ancestors, and many other objects, have led you to an opposition, and to prefer pretensions which you are not entitled to.

"I owe it to the welfare of my kingdom, I owe it to myself, to dissipate these fatal divisions. It is with this resolution, gentlemen, that I convene you once more around me—I do it as the common father of my people—I do it as the defender of my kingdom's laws, that I may recall to your memory the true spirit of the constitution, and resist those attempts which have been aimed against it.

"But, gentlemen, after having clearly established the respective rights of the different orders, I expect from the zeal of the two principal classes—their attachment to my person—I expect from the knowledge they have of the pressing urgencies of the state, that in those matters which concern the general good, they should be the

first to propose a re-union of consultation and opinion, which I consider as necessary in the present crisis, and which ought to take place for the general good of the kingdom."

His majesty delivered this speech with great emphasis and propriety.

The keeper of the seals then read a declaration from the king, containing thirty-five articles.

1st. The distinction of orders preserved, as essentially connected with the constitution of the kingdom; in consequence of which the king declares null the arrests of the third estate of the 15th of June, and ulterior, as unconstitutional.

2d. All verified powers declared good, excepting the decrees upon contested deputations.

3d. All limitations and restrictions opposed to the powers of the deputies, declared null.

4th. In case of any oath taken by deputies, relative to restrained powers, the king leaves the execution of it to their conscience.

5th. The king permits the deputations to ask for fresh powers from their provinces, &c.

6th. The king declares he will not permit any such limitations of power in future.

7th. Deliberations relative to general affairs and taxes, to be in common between the orders.

8th. All deliberations relative to the constitution to be deliberated by each order.

9th. Privileges and *Veto* of the clergy, in matters of religion, preserved.

10th. Poll-tax abolished, to be united to any other territorial tax, without distinction of right or birth.

11th. Free fiefs abolished, as soon as the revenues of the state shall equal the expenses.

12th. Tithes, rights, and feudal duties preserved.

13th. Exemption from all personal charges to the two first orders; the said charges to be paid for in money, and to be contributed to equally by the three orders.

14th. The states to fix to what offices nobility is to be attached: the king, however, to ennoble any one he pleases as a recompense for services.

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means of personal security, the suppression of *Lettres de Cachet*, and to substitute whatever may be necessary for the security of the state, and the honour of families.

16th. The liberty of the press left to the judgment of the states, keeping it consistent with religion, morals, and the honour of the citizens.

17th. Provincial states to be established, with two-tenths of the voices to be of the clergy, three-tenths noblesse, and five-tenths of the third estate.

18th. To be elected, or an elector, they must be possessed of landed property.

19th. The states-general to fix the manner in which the next states-general are to be convened.

20th. An intermediate commission to be established for the provincial states, and deliberation to be in common in those states.

21st. The organization of those states left to the states-general.

22d. Hospitals, taxes of towns, the preservation of the woods, &c. left to the inspection of the provincial states.

23d. Constitutions and privileges of the provinces left to the judgment of the states-general, who are to regulate their form of administration.

24th. The amelioration of the domains to be examined by the states, &c.

25th. Custom houses removed to the frontiers.

26th. The States to examine into the duty on salt, and, till it is suppressed, the payment of it to be softened.

27th. The states to examine into the inconveniency of the *Droits des Aides*, observing that the balance between the receipt of that, and the duty to be substituted in its place, should be equal.

28th. The king engages to reform the civil and criminal justice.

29th. Total suppression of enregimentments under certain restrictions.

30th. Corvées abolished.

31st. The king desires the right of mortmain to be abolished throughout his kingdom, as he has done in his domain.

32d. The *Capitaineries* to be restrained and modified by the king.

33d. The inconveniences of the

militia left for the examination of the states.

34th. No change in the laws, taxes, or other parts of administration or legislation, to take place during the holding of the states.

35th. The armies, police, and power over the military, to be reserved exclusively to the king.

The king then declared he was going to make his will known; it was contained in fifteen articles:

1st. No tax without consent of the states.

2d. Either old or new taxes only to be in force till the next holding of the states-general.

3d. The king prohibits himself from making any loan without the consent of the states, except in case of necessity, war, &c. and then the loan not to exceed 100 millions.

4th. The states to examine the account of the finances, both receipts and expenditures.

5th. State of finances to be published annually.

6th. The expenses of each department to be fixed and invariable.

7th. The creditors of the state to be put upon the faith of the public.

8th. Certain honorary rights preserved to the clergy and noblesse.

9th. When the two first orders shall have realized the giving up of the pecuniary privileges, the king will sanction it.

10th and 11th. Contested deputations to be judged in common by the orders, and determined by the reunion of two-thirds of the voices, or the judgment to be referred to the king.

12th. Any resolution to be examined into at the request of one hundred members.

13th. Commissioners to be appointed in the three orders to confer.

14th. The presidents of each order to have a seat in the commissions to be established, according to the dignity of their order.

15th. None but the deputies to be admitted to the deliberations of the states or the chambers.

The king then ordered every one to retire, and to meet again the next day in the chamber of orders.

The nobles, and part of the clergy, shouted *vive le roi!* but the commons remained in profound silence; nor

would they quit the hall, where, together with about fifty of the clergy, who would not separate from them, they instantly proceeded to discuss the royal proceedings. Four times the king sent an officer to order them, on their allegiance, to break up their meeting; four times did they decidedly deny the authority of the king to command them to separate, and by their firmness carried their point.

M. le Camus, one of the Paris deputies, then moved, "that the national assembly do persist in all its preceding resolutions;" those of the clergy who remained, nobly desiring their preference to be specified. This proposition was unanimously adopted, nor would they hear of a motion of adjournment all next day.

Another motion followed from the Comte de Mirabeau, to the following effect, and nearly in these words: "the national assembly feeling the necessity of securing the personal liberty, the freedom of opinion, and the right of each deputy of the states-general, to enquire into, and censure all sorts of abuses and obstacles to the public welfare and liberty, do resolve, That the person of each deputy is inviolable: that any individual, public or private, of what quality soever, any corporate body of men, any tribunal, court of justice, or commission whatsoever, who should dare, during the present session, to prosecute, or cause to be prosecuted, arrest, or cause to be arrested, detain, or cause to be detained, the person of one or more deputies, for any proposition, advice, or speech, made by them in the states-general, or in any of its assemblies, or committees, shall be deemed infamous, and a traitor to his country; and that in any such case, or cases, the national assembly will pursue every possible means and measures to bring the authors, instigators, or executors of such arbitrary proceedings, to condign punishment." This resolution was carried, 483 against 34.

Every thing was now in the most violent ferment, both at Paris and Versailles.

On the night of this memorable day (Tuesday) an immense multitude of persons of all ranks assembled at nine

o'clock, and being informed that Mr. Neckar was about to depart for Switzerland, forced their way into the inner court of the palace, at Versailles, and with loud and menacing cries, demanded that Mr. Neckar should continue minister; accompanied with the most violent execrations against the archbishop of Paris, and many other still higher personages. The alarm was inexpressible in the palace; the princes, the Comte d'Artois in particular, called to arms; the troops got together from all parts; but when ordered to fire, refused to draw a trigger upon their countrymen, though before the very windows of the palace.

The king sent for Mr. Neckar, who at first refused to come; a second message brought him, amidst the acclamations of thousands, who made him promise not to quit the kingdom. He represented to the king the danger to which the measures he was pursuing exposed his person and the nation. The king said to him, "Neckar, I believe you are an honest man; you never yet deceived me; but, alas! I have been deceived." Adding, "I have some papers at Mith I must shew you. I will go immediately for them." Monsieur offered to execute the commission: "No," says the king, "no man must see them but myself;" and he set out.

Next day (Wednesday the 23th) Mr. Neckar appeared in his station as usual, with the king, and it is supposed that all the violent measures adopted on Tuesday will be annulled.

The commons continued their deliberations, and sent a deputation to compliment Mr. Neckar, who returned a most affectionate, but guarded answer, giving the ancient title of your order to the commons. The report is, that the archbishop of Paris is exiled, as well as the whole house of Polignac; but this is still a momentous crisis. The king is easily misled; and it is no exaggeration to say, that a single spark would infallibly light up a civil war. The clergy have again taken courage, and resumed their seats as a body in the national assembly, to the number of 152, headed by two archbishops, and several bishops. The archbishop of Paris has had two narrow escapes for his life,



The duke of Orleans, at the head of more than forty of the principal nobles, and two hundred of the clergy, joined the third estate, subscribed the oath they had previously taken, and gave their unanimous assent to the several resolutions which they had come to.

All the inhabitants of Versailles, together with thousands from Paris, paraded the streets of that town, with torches, the whole of Tuesday night.

A duel likewise has been fought, in consequence of these disputes, between the prince de Poix, captain of the king's private guard, who is notwithstanding a determined friend of the people in the house of nobles, and the marquis de Lambert, one of the Paris deputies for the nobles, wherein the latter received a wound, supposed to be mortal; and the former received another in his hand.

The national assembly continue their sittings sometimes till three or four in the morning.

Paris is full of alarms, joy, misery and rejoicing!

*London, July 3.  
Famine in France.*

Yesterday morning the right hon. lord Elgin, arrived in town from Paris, which place he left on Sunday last. He travelled the journey in less than fifty hours. At Metz, the dearth of flour was such, that the people, driven by hunger and despair, collected in great bodies, and attacked the houses of several persons, whom they suspected of hoarding meal. The governor drew out two French regiments; and having furnished them with ammunition, ordered them to act against the mob. They refused. The governor ordered them back to their quarters, but without taking from them the ammunition. The German regiments were then brought out, which roused the indignation of the national troops, who burst from their quarters, and joined the mob. A dreadful haycock was the consequence. Upwards of a thousand men on each side were killed, and at length the German regiments were overpowered. The governor escaped in time from the fury of the populace. Such was the account of the affray in Paris, when lord Elgin left it; but no regu-

lar statement of it had come before the public.

The foreign troops from Lorraine and Alsace were said to be on their march to Paris and Versailles. Marshal Broglie, who is to have the command in the Isle of France, is known to be a royalist. The popular party, however, have no apprehensions. The national army is with them, and is in possession of the principal towns; so that no money can be levied from the people without their concurrence.

July 9. The committee who met on the exportation of corn to France, reported to the privy council on Monday evening, that no supply for that country could be spared from England. The extreme wisdom of this measure was apparent from documents then laid before the committee.

July 14. The following news from Paris was brought by express late last night. The disturbances are farther from adjustment than when the last accounts arrived from thence.

The power of the king is daily abating.

The Irish brigade alone, are steadfastly attached to royalty. How long in this general defection, their attachment may last, is uncertain.

The populace have seized the arsenal, and taken from it all the arms and ammunition—a step that has obliged the king's troops to retire to some distance from the capital.

The king has dissolved the meeting of the national assembly, but in defiance of his authority, the assembly continue to sit and act.

The university is levelled to the ground.

The king, it is further said, has erected a standard for his partizans to flock to, but they are few who resort to it: such is the spirit of the times!

The address presented by a deputation of the national assembly to the French king, on the subject of the introduction of the foreign troops, and the forming of the camps so near the capital, is from the pen of the Count Mirabeau, and a very masterly composition. His majesty's answer is at once conciliating, ambiguous, and vague.

A French nobleman of high rank, is arrived here this morning, who

brings advice, that the party of the people carry every thing before them at Paris. The French guards have openly declared on that side. They, with the populace, attacked the Bastille; many of them entered; when mons. de Launoy, the governor, drew up the bridge, enclosed those who had entered, and cut them to pieces. The troops, and people without, finding their companions detained, attacked the place, and forced it open—and finding what had happened to their party, took the governor out, led him through the streets, obliged him to make the *amende honorable* to the people, and then cut off his hands and his head. The foreign regiments, frightened by the violence of the commotion, have all laid down their arms, or fled, except one regiment of Hussars, which alone remains to guard the person of the king. The queen and the Comte d'Artois are both fled, and a reward is offered for their heads. Many of the principal nobility, who side with the king, are likewise proscribed and gone off. In short, it appears that the king is at the mercy of the *tiers état*, and must submit wholly to their terms. Such are the effects of popular commotions when they get a head in despotic countries.

The bastille is burned, and all the prisoners set at liberty; the hotel of the prince de Conti, that of the count d'Artois, and several other edifices are destroyed by fire.

Many people have been killed in the affrays and skirmishes which have happened. Almost all the shops are constantly shut, and a general distrust rules there. People press in crowds to get their money from the Caisse d'Escompte. M. Neckar is gone off at the king's command, and he is very fortunate to have escaped from a scene of such confusion. It is said the king himself is gone from Versailles.

*Dreadful massacre, at Vezoul, in Franche Comté.*

The scenes of horror displayed last week in the metropolis, have afforded matter doubtless of severe animadversion on the ferocity of the actors in this painful tragedy. Would to God it were left in my power to palliate, if not to justify, these dreadful excesses

of a long-abused, degraded, and patient people! Many of our historians have almost seemed to cast a doubt on the real existence of the horrid gunpowder conspiracy in all its extent. The fact I have now to relate, happening, as it were, before our eyes, and in the end of the eighteenth century, will put an end to scepticism respecting that point of history, by humbling poor human nature, and proving what monsters occasionally infest the world, in shape of men. This exordium appears strong. Read the fact.

*Minutes of the national assembly.*

Mr. Punelle, one of the deputies of Franche Comté, desired the attention of the members, whilst he recited to them a frightful event which had happened at the Chateau de Quinlay, near Vezoul, in the night of the 19th and 20th inst.

“Mr. President,

“I could wish to conceal from the knowledge of the representatives of the nation, from Frenchmen, from the whole world, the dreadful portrait of the bloody catastrophe that has taken place at the castle of Quinlay; I lose myself! I shudder with horror!—I have to relate to you a crime engendered in blackness itself, in the breast of a demon; but to inform you of the particulars, it will be proper to read you the information taken by the *maréchaussée* on the spot.

“We, &c. brigadier of the *maréchaussée*, &c. &c. certify and swear, that we repaired to Quinlay, near Vezoul, where we found a dying man, attended by the curate of the parish, who informed us, that monsieur de Memmay, the lord of Quinlay, had announced to the inhabitants and troops in garrison at Vezoul, that, on account of the happy event (the revolution in Paris) in which all the nation took a part, he (the monster) intended giving an entertainment to all those who chose to repair to his country seat; which was eagerly accepted: but that monsieur Memmay withdrew from the entertainment, alleging, that his presence might check the gaiety of his guests; besides, that he could not decently appear himself, as he had hitherto been one of the protesting nobles, and a parliamentary partizan against the popular cause—

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that an immense crowd of citizens and soldiers being assembled, they were desired to adjourn to a spot at some distance from the house, where they amused themselves in festivity and dancing; but that on a sudden, fire being set to a match, which communicated with a powder mine, formed under the spot where the people were taken up with festivity, *the whole were blown up!*—that on the noise of the explosion, the curate, with others, repaired to the chateau, whither we likewise went, and found numbers floating in their blood, scattered corpses, and dismembered members still palpitating with life, &c.

This information is signed by the brigadier, and authenticated by the lieutenant-general.

This barbarity, sir, exercised against every right and law both human and divine; this cool, cruel, and detestable act of barbarity, contrived by hypocrisy, and perpetrated with diabolical vengeance, has thrown the whole country into confusion. Every man flew to arms, the castle is razed to the ground, all the neighbouring castles are destroyed; the people, who know no restraint when they think men have merited their fury, had recourse to, and still continue the most violent excesses. They have burnt and sacked the record offices of the nobles, have compelled them to renounce all their privileges, have destroyed and demolished many castles, burnt a rich abbey of the order of Cîteaux (the famous rich abbey so often the object of Voltaire's animadversion.) The young princesse de Beaufremont and the baroness d'Andelon owed their escape only to a sort of miracle.

"The municipal body of Vezoul, presided by the marquis de Jombert, have taken every step in their power to stay the fatal effects of such a fermentation; but the means are insufficient in a province like ours, where each little village can furnish at least eight or ten men, who have served in the army, and consequently know the use of arms. I entreat the assembly, therefore, to take into consideration, the melancholy situation of the distracted country I have the honour to represent, and to consult on the speediest and most efficacious means of remedying this dreadful evil."

He then went on to propose such measures as might tend to allay the fury of the people; and added, "A monster of this nature will not, I trust, find an asylum in any country; nor is there a doubt that every power, and every form of government, will make an exception, if necessary, in this dreadful instance, and readily consent to give him up on the very first demand. He should expiate, by a punishment invented for him alone, the horrid crime with which he has dishonoured human nature. But I am unable to dwell on this atrocity; the idea alone abhors all my faculties, extinguishes all reflexion—I am incapable of proceeding."

The national assembly, instantly, on the motion of the count de Serant, directed the president to wait on the king, and supplicate him to give immediate orders to have this horrid transaction examined into by the tribunal the nearest to the place where it happened, in spite of any opposition on the part of the parliament of Besançon, or of any other parliament or body of men whatever; and further resolved, that his majesty be desired to give orders to the ministers of foreign affairs, to claim by his ambassadors, at every court, such persons, for several are suspected) as, being guilty of so atrocious a crime, shall have withdrawn, or may withdraw, into foreign countries—that they may be sent into France, delivered into the hands of justice, and punished according to the rigour of the laws.

An amendment was made to this motion by M. Tronchet, for the king to be desired to seize, by letters patent, the presidial court of Venozé, in order to prevent them, by capacious edicts, from taking cognizance of the affair; but was withdrawn on the observation of M. de Serant, that it was sufficient to denounce so execrable a crime to the executive power, which would not fail to pursue it with unremitting vigour.

A conspiracy has been discovered in the house of the duke of Orleans, as black as those I have related to you. Several of his attendants are *only* dismissed; such is the clemency of that prince! Some noble persons attached to him are of the number,

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